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*(A View from the Column of S.^t Mark to the Dalmatian Wharf)
in the City of Venice.*



*(A View from the Column of S.^t Theodore to the entrance of the
great Canal in the City of Venice.*

great variety of objects assembled in it. In the evening it is crowded with all sorts of people; and in fine weather numbers pass the greatest part of the night there. The nobles and wealthy people sometimes prefer the apartments of their own, neatly fitted up, but without magnificence, where they may receive a few friends in a more easy manner than they could do at their palaces. These are their *Cassinos*; where, instead of going home to a formal supper, and returning to this place of general resort, they order refreshments, and amuse themselves with cards. That these *cassinos* may be occasionally used for the purposes of intrigue is not improbable; but that this is the general purpose for which they are frequented is certainly false.

There are no less than seven theatres at Venice, one for the serious opera, two for comic operas, and four play-houses. It is the custom to go masked during the carnival, in autumn, and at the Ascension: with a mask, and a silk cloak, a man is then sufficiently dressed for any assembly in Venice. Masks in character are used only three or four weeks before Lent.

The Arsenal is on an island, about three miles in compass. Here are docks for the galleys and men of war, and repositories for all sorts of military and naval stores. Here also they build their men of war under cover; cast cannon; make cables, sails, anchors, &c. The arms are arranged in the armories, as in other arsenals. The Bucentoro, or state galley of the republic, is laid up here. It never goes out but when it carries the doge to the espousals of the Adriatic. When the weather is favourable, the ceremony of the espousals is performed on Ascension-day. The solemnity is announced in the morning by ringing of bells, and firing of cannon. About noon the doge, with the pope's nuncio, and the patriarch on each side of him, attended by a numerous party of the senate and clergy, goes on board. The vessel is rowed a little way into the sea, accompanied by the splendid yachts of the foreign ambassadors, the gondolas of the Venetian nobility, and an incredible number of small vessels of every kind, many of them covered with canopies of silk or rich stuffs, with the gondoliers in sumptuous liveries. A band of music plays, while the Bucentoro, and its train, slowly move towards the Lido. The doge drops a ring into the sea, pronouncing these words; "*Desponsamus te mare in signum veri perpetuæ dominii.*" He then returns in the same state, inviting those who accompany him in the galley to dinner. The day following the fair begins at S. Mark, which lasts ten days.

One of the great singularities of Venice is its gondolas, or long narrow boats, which have a room in the middle, six feet by four, covered with black cloth, and with sliding windows. Two persons sit very commodiously at the end, and two others may sit on each side. They are rowed either by one or two gondoliers standing. These gondolas are the only carriages at Venice, and there are stands of them every where, as there are of hackney coaches at London. The gondoliers are robust, good humoured, and lively; pique themselves upon the quickness of their repartees, and are esteemed for their fidelity and attachment.

In fine weather they frequently challenge one another to a contest. They put up a little flag, or a bough, for a prize, which they display the greatest ardour to obtain. If any person of consequence, or a stranger, shows any desire to see the contest, arrangements are made for a more orderly course, and the city is amused with a regata. But, on particular occasions, a grand regata is sometimes exhibited, under the direction, and at the expence of government. On these public occasions the competitors are chosen from families of the first reputation among the gondoliers. When the day arrives their relations encourage them, by calling to mind the triumphs of their families: the women present the oar; and religion has its share in the preparations. The course is about four miles, along the great canal, and back again. The prizes are four, marked by flags of

different colours. The great canal, upon these occasions, is covered with barges, boats, and gondolas; and on each side are placed bands of music.

One of the principal manufactories at Venice is that of glass, on the island of Murano. They blow large mirrors, and make abundance of trinkets (*margaritine*) and flowers to decorate lustres, and for nosegays to adorn the churches. They export little now but to the Levant.

Printing also still makes one of the chief branches of trade. Few countries make better velvets or silk stockings. The wax brought from Dalmatia, Greece, and all the Levant, employs several manufactories. Jewellery forms a considerable branch of foreign commerce. Drugs are imported from the Levant, and are esteemed excellent: their Theriaca is in great reputation. Their *marasquin*, or cherry water, and their liquors famous. Though they have nothing within themselves, yet no city is better furnished with the necessaries and luxuries of life from the Paduan and Polesin.

The territory of Padua is 35 miles long, 28 broad, and exceeding fertile.

Padua, the capital, is situated on the Brenta, 34 miles east of Venice, and has many churches, hospitals, and convents; but the streets are narrow and dirty. The university, with the public schools, museum, &c. is one of the first objects of curiosity. The chemical laboratory, with a collection of minerals, has been lately established by the present professor of chemistry. The anatomical theatre is curiously fitted up, to hold a multitude of spectators in a little compass; but it is small and dark. The museum of natural curiosities was collected by Antonio Vallisneri. The botanic garden is a very good one, and arranged according to the system of Tournefort. The oeconomical garden, instituted for experiments in husbandry, is in very good condition, under the care of an active naturalist. Padua has always had men of learning and eminence. It was the birth place of Livy: Petrarch was a canon of the cathedral: Galileo lived here: and it lately possessed Tartini.

There is a cloth manufactory in the city for home consumption. But the great number of beggars with which the place swarms is a strong indication that trade and manufactures are not in a flourishing condition.

In the environs of Padua the Euganean Mountains will attract the notice of the naturalist: they are extinct volcanos, and full of all the productions of subterraneous fires. A very interesting excursion also may be made to the hot baths of Abano, four or five miles from Padua; and to Petrarch's villa and monument at Arquà.

Verona, on the Adige, is a large, strong, finely situated city. Over the river are four bridges, of which that which leads to the castle is much admired. The castles are three in number. The streets are narrow and dirty, and the houses mean. The best street in the city is that called the Corso, where horse and foot races are sometimes run. The largest square is that called Piazza d'Armi, where the annual fairs were formerly kept, in April and Autumn. The Scaliger family were formerly lords of Verona; and in the church of St. Maria Antica are some monuments of the family, with their arms. In the town-house are the statues of five celebrated persons, natives of Verona, viz. the poets Catullus and Æmilius Marcus, the historian Cornelius Nepos, Pliny the elder, and Veruivius the architect. Here are several academies for the improvement of music, polite exercises, &c. an elegant theatre, and a Roman amphitheatre in fine preservation.

The Vicentine territory is well watered, fertile, and healthy, and the wine is admirable.

Vicenza, the capital, is charmingly situated between two mountains, on a large plain. Though but four miles round, it contains between thirty and forty thousand souls. It is the native place of Palladio; and the best works of this celebrated architect make the great ornament of the city.

Teatro Olimpico is one of the finest specimens of modern architecture: it was begun early in 1588, the very year that Palladio died. The house in which the architect himself lived was built by him, and is no less modest than elegant.

Vicenza, though of no extraordinary extent, has above sixty churches, convents, and hospitals.

A naturalist will visit the Grotta de Cavoli, the mineral waters of Recoaro, the tepid waters of S. Pancrazio di Barbarano, the hills of Bretto, and the mountains to the north of the city, in which are abundance of shells, petrefactions, &c.

In the volcanic mountains near Vicenza are nodules of chalcedony, from the size of a pea to the diameter of an inch, bedded in the lava: they are commonly hollow; and that hollow sometimes has water in it, and they are then called enhydri.

These Vicentine hills are calcareous, furnishing fine red, yellow, and variegated marbles; and have been shattered by violent volcanos.

Bresciano territory, which is tolerably fertile, and well watered, contains no place worth observing, but

Brescia, its capital, standing in a pleasant plain on the little river Garza. It is very populous, and drives a considerable trade in fire-arms, swords, knives, and other cutlery wares. They make here also linen cloth, and deal in many other kinds of merchandize. The castle stands on a rock, and commands the whole town; and the arsenal is well furnished with warlike stores.

The district of Bergamasco is, in general, barren, though well watered; and the inhabitants are subject to the same kinds of wens in the throat as the Savoyards. It only contains Bergamo, a fortified town at the foot of the Alps.

Crema, in the territory of Cremano, which is fruitful and pleasant, is situated on the Serio, strong, handsome, the see of a bishop, and famed for a linen manufactory.

Marca Trevigiana is so fertile a district as to have obtained the name of a continued garden. Treviso, the capital, is an antient, strong, neat, but not populous place.

Patria del Friuli is the northern verge of Italy, and belongs partly to the Venetians, and partly to the Austrians. It is very fertile, but does not contain any remarkable place, except

Udino, a considerable city on the river or canal La Roia. It hath a fine castle, with several handsome churches, palaces, and convents; besides a college for law, and an academy for martial exercises.

Istria is a fruitful peninsula on the Adriatic, belonging partly to the Venetians, and partly to the Austrians. It is fertile, though hilly; but the air is unwholesome.

Capo de Istria is a strong town on an island in the gulph, so near the continent as to be joined by a bridge. It is the see of a bishop, contains many convents, and has a considerable trade in salt.

Lucca is interesting, as being the capital of a little republic, which, for its extent, is the richest and best peopled state of Italy. The territory is forty miles in length, and fifteen in breadth, containing about 400 square miles. An air of cheerfulness and plenty appears among the people, and their scanty soil is improved to the utmost. The mountains are covered with vines, olives, chestnuts, and mulberries: their olives and oil are in great esteem. Towards the sea much cattle is fed in the meadows and marshes. No beggars or idle people are to be seen in this republic; nor has luxury yet corrupted their manners. The habit of ceremony is black; and the Gonfaloniere is the only person who wears lace. There are no titles, and nobody wears a sword.

The capital city has neither good streets, or handsome buildings. Round the ramparts is a pleasant walk or drive, of three miles in extent; and here the company assemble after dinner, or in the evening. The climate is temperate, and the country round delight-

ful, ornamented with abundance of charming country houses.

GENOA is greatly degenerated from its former splendor. The government is aristocratical. The doge, or duke, is chosen only for two years. The legislative power is lodged in the great council. The administration is vested in a doge, and a proper council. The doge has the title of Serenity during his office. The great council make laws and raise money; the lesser declare war, proclaim peace, and form alliances.

The Genoese territories are 160 miles in length, but do not exceed 25 in breadth. They extend along that part of the Mediterranean called the Gulph of Genoa, and are divided into two districts, viz. the eastern coast and the western coast. The former contains

Genoa, the capital, which stands on the coast of the Mediterranean. As it is partly situated on a declivity, it appears to great advantage from the sea. It is defended on the land side by a double wall. The New and Balbi Streets consist each of a double row of magnificent palaces; the other streets are crooked and narrow; but the suburb of San Pietra d' Arena contains many noble buildings. Here are several palaces, churches, convents, hospitals, &c. many of which are superbly built of marble. The palace where the doge resides, and where the great and little council, and the two colleges of the procuratori and governatori assemble, is a large stone building in the center of the city: it contains some fine paintings in fresco, two statues of Andrew and John Doria in white marble, and an arsenal amply stored. Of the churches the finest are those of the Annunciation, St. Mary Carignan, St. Dominic, and St. Martha. In the cathedral is a dish made of a single emerald. All the inhabitants here, except the principal ladies, who are carried in chairs, walk on foot on account of the narrowness or steepness of the streets. The fortifications of the city towards the sea are remarkably strong. There are two fine stone bridges over the rivers Bonzevera and Bisagno; the first whereof washes the west, and the other the east side of the city, within which there is also a surprising stone bridge, joining two hills. The harbour, though large, is far from being safe; but no care or expence have been spared to render it as safe and commodious as possible. On a rock, on the west side of the harbour, is the fanal, or light-house. The trade of Genoa is chiefly in velvets, damasks, plush and other silks, brocades, lace, gloves, sweetmeats, fruits, oil, anchovies, and medicinal drugs from the Levant; but the badness of the harbour, and the price of commodities, greatly check its commerce.

The western coast contains

Savona, a large town, with a strong citadel, and a harbour capable of receiving large ships, but partly choked up.

St. Remo, a small town, with a good harbour, 17 miles east of Nice. Mr. Addison says, he saw several persons here, that, in the midst of December, had nothing over their shoulders but their shirts, without complaining of the cold.

Between the Genoese territories and the county of Nice is the small principality of Monaco, where the late duke of York died. The only place worth mentioning in the principality is that which gives name to it, viz.

Monaco, a small town, containing about eight or nine hundred souls, besides the garrison, built on a rock which projects into the sea, and making a very romantic appearance.

TUSCANY is encompassed by that part of the Mediterranean called the Tuscan Sea, Modena, Lucca, and the Papedom. It is 216 miles long, 80 broad, well watered, mountainous in some parts, but fertile in others. The great duke is an absolute prince. The only order of knighthood is that of St. Stephen, instituted

tuted in 1554. The duke is always grand master; and the badge of the order is an octangular red cross, with a golden border worn on the breast.

Florence, on the Arno, the capital, is 26 miles south from Venice. It gives name to a populous and fertile district. Here are four stone bridges over the Arno. The number of churches, palaces, hospitals, and convents, are great, but the streets are crooked and narrow. The old and new ducal palace contain rich collection of natural and artificial curiosities, both ancient and modern. The chapel for the interment of the great dukes, in the church of St. Lorenzo, is magnificent. Here is an academy for the improvement of the Tuscan language, called Della Crusca, another for agriculture, and another for riding. The principal trade, besides wine, oil, fruits, and other produce of the country, consists in wrought silks, and gold and silver stuffs. The nobility and gentry do not think it below them to trade: though, at the same time, they look upon it as a great disparagement to educate their children in the profession of physic. They write the Italian here very well; but their pronunciation is guttural and disagreeable. Florence is adorned with seven fountains, six columns, two pyramids, and about 160 statues. Most of the Florentines are short-sighted, and hence the Florentini Ciechi, or Blind Florentines, has passed into a proverbial jest. As the Tuscan order, and rustic work, owe their origin to this country, the architects take care to give them a place in all the structures they rear in this duchy. The great piazza, or square, is very spacious and magnificent, with a noble fountain in the midst of it. The arsenal is well worth a traveller's notice, being a stately building, and well furnished with all sorts of weapons of war, kept in good order. The cathedral is a very magnificent edifice, the whole outside being of polished marble, and enriched with the most exquisite architecture and sculpture; and from the ball, over the cupola, you have a delightful prospect of all the churches, palaces, monasteries, &c. within the walls, and of near 2000 villas, or country seats, without. Hard by the church stands the much celebrated Campanile, or square steeple, which is 180 feet high, all of fine marble, of several colours, and curiously wrought.

Pisa, on the Arno, formerly a republic, was subdued by the Florentines in 1406, since which it has greatly declined. The houses and streets are handsome. The university is in a flourishing condition, and the exchange is magnificent, but little frequented. The great duke's galleys are built, and commonly stationed, here. This city is also the principal residence of the order of St. Stephen, and the see of an archbishop. The cathedral, a large Gothic pile, contains a great number of excellent paintings, and other curiosities. Near the cathedral is the city burying ground, called Il Campo Santo; and in that the famous leaning tower; the inclination of which is so great, that a plumb line let down from the top touches the ground at the distance of near 15 feet from the bottom. The city has a moat, walls, a castle, fort, and citadel. The Arno is of considerable breadth, and has three bridges over it, one of them of marble. Two leagues below the town it falls into the sea. The physic garden is very spacious, contains a great number of plants, and is decorated with water works. Over the door leading into it are these words; *Ilic Argus sed nos Briareus esto*; i. e. "Employ the eyes of Argus, but not the hands of Briareus."

Leghorn (*Livorno*) is only fourteen miles from Pisa. It is a free port, fortified on the land side with good bastions, and wide ditches filled with water: the garrison is 2000 men. The town is about two miles in circuit: the general form is square: part of it has the convenience of canals, one of which is five miles in length, and joining the Arno merchandize and passengers are thus conveyed to Pisa. The streets are straight; the chief street very broad: the squares spacious and handsome, but not regular: the great church magnificent.

Cosmo and his two sons fortified the city, drained the marshes, established the freedom of the port, and formed two most commodious harbours, which, however, have not depth of water sufficient for men of war. There is nothing to be seen besides these, with the mole, lazaretto, coral manufactory, and statue of Ferdinand I. with the four slaves chained to the pedestal: the first by Giovanni dell'Opera, the slaves by Pietro Tacca Carrarese.

The inhabitants are about 45,000, of which at least 15,000 are Jews, who have engrossed the coral manufactory, have a considerable trade, and possess the chief riches of the place.

Sienna, a large ancient city, 38 miles south of Florence, has a fertile pleasant territory of near 65 miles square. The city is clean, neat and healthy, but not populous. The inhabitants are polite, and speak the Italian language in its utmost purity. The cathedral is a very magnificent Gothic pile. Fronting the cathedral is a spacious and well-endowed hospital, founded by a shoe-maker, who is interred in the church, and, as a reward for his liberality, hath been canonized. Over the statue erected to his memory is this apposite inscription, *Suter ultra crepidam*; i. e. "The shoe-maker went beyond his Last."

SECTION III.

General Observations respecting the Persons, Genius, Dispositions, Language &c. of the Italians.

HAVING taken occasion to describe the manners, customs, &c. of the inhabitants of this country as they respectively occurred, in the course of our division, we have only to add the following general remarks.

The Italians are usually well proportioned, and have expressive countenances. As to dress, they follow the fashions of the countries on which they border, or to which they are subject, namely, those of France, Spain, and Germany. With respect to their genius and taste in architecture, painting, carving, and music, they excel most other nations of Europe. They are affable, courteous, ingenious, sober, and ready witted; but jealous, vindictive, ceremonious, and superstitious. In their tempers the Italians seem to be a good medium between the French and Spaniards; neither so gay and volatile as the one, nor so grave and solemn as the other. The women admire yellow hair, as the Roman ladies and courtezans formerly did. They also use paint and washes, both for their hands and faces. The day here is reckoned from sun-set to sun-set, as the Athenians did of old.

The Italian language is corrupted Latin; but since the revival of arts in Italy, it hath been so much refined, that it is now deemed elegant, soft, and smooth. The purest Italian is spoken in Tuscany. The Roman Catholic religion here predominates. The exports are chiefly wine, oil, perfumes, fruits, and silks. Travellers expend large sums of money in Italy, in purchasing pictures, curiosities, antiquities, relics, &c.

SECTION IV.

HISTORY OF ITALY.

ACCORDING to the accounts of most historians Italy was first peopled from Greece. In those early ages, when the Romans first began to extend their territories, like most other countries it was parcelled out into a great number of small states, who were all gradually subdued by the Romans. On the declension of the Roman empire, the Huns, Goths, Vandals, Heruli, and other northern nations, passed the Alps, and seized on the greatest part of it. After them came the Lombards, or Longbeards, and erected a kingdom in the northern part of it, which was overturned by Charlemagne, who founded a new empire in the west.

The successors of Charlemagne claimed, and for some time possessed, the sovereignty of Italy; but their civil wars at home soon gave an opportunity to their governors either to assume or purchase the sovereignty of the several states over which they presided.

Savoy and Piedmont, in time, fell to the lot of the counts of Maurienne, the ancestors of his present Sardinian majesty, whose father became king of Sardinia by virtue of the quadruple alliance, concluded in 1718.

The Milanese went through several hands; but was at length possessed by the emperor Charles V. about the year 1525, who gave it to his son Philip II. king of Spain. It remained with that crown till the French were driven out of Italy, by the Imperialists, in 1706. These were dispossessed of it in 1743; but, by the emperor's cession of Naples and Sicily to the present king of Spain, it returned to the House of Austria, who governs it as by viceroy.

The duchy of Mantua was formerly governed by the family of Gonzaga, who adhering to France, the territory was forfeited, as a fief of the empire, to the house of Austria, which now possesses it, the last duke dying without male issue; but Guastella was separated from it in 1748, and made part of the duchy of Parma.

The first duke of Parma was natural son to pope Paul III. the duchy having been annexed to the holy see, in 1545, by pope Julius II. The descendants of the house of Farnese terminated in the late queen dowager of Spain, whose son, his present Catholic majesty, obtained that duchy, and his nephew now holds it with the duchy of Piacenza.

The Venetians were formerly the most formidable maritime power in Europe. In 1193 they conquered Constantinople itself, and held it for some time, together with great part of the continent of Europe and Asia. The discovery of a passage to India, by the Cape of Good Hope, gave the first blow to their greatness, as it lost them the Indian trade. By degrees the Turks took from them their most valuable possessions on the continent; and so late as the year 1715 they lost the Morea.

The Genoese, for some time, disputed the empire of the Mediterranean Sea with the Venetians, but were seldom or never able to maintain their own independence by land, being generally protected, and sometimes subjected, by the French and Imperialists. At present they are possessed of a revenue barely sufficient to preserve the appearance of a sovereign state.

The great duchy of Tuscany belonged to the emperors of Germany, who governed it by deputies, till the year 1240, when the famous distinction of the Guelphs, who were the partizans of the pope, and the Gibellines, who were in the emperor's interest, took place. The popes then persuaded the Imperial governments in Tuscany to put themselves under the protection of the church; but the Florentines in a short time formed themselves into a free commonwealth, and bravely defended their liberties against both parties by turns. Faction at last shook their freedom; and the family of Medici, long before they were declared princes or dukes, in fact governed Florence, though the rights and privileges of the people seemed still to exist. The Medici, particularly Cosmo, who was deservedly called the father of his country, being in the secret, shared with the Venetians in the immense profits of the East India trade, before the discoveries made by the Portuguese. His revenue, in ready money, which exceeded that of any sovereign prince in Europe, enabled his successors to rise to sovereign power; and pope Pius V. gave one of his descendants, Cosmo, (the

great patron of the arts,) the title of great duke of Tuscany, in 1570, which continued in his family to the death of Gaston de Medicis, in 1737, who left no issue. The great duchy was then claimed by the emperor Charles VI. as a fief of the empire, and given to his son-in-law the duke of Lorraine, and late emperor, in lieu of the duchy of Lorraine, which was ceded to France by treaty. Leopold, his second son, brother to the present emperor, is now grand duke, and Tuscany assumes a new face. Leghorn, which belongs to him, carries on a great trade; and several ships of very considerable force are now stationed on the Tuscan coasts, to prevent the depredations of the Infidels.

Few countries have undergone greater vicissitudes of government than Naples or Sicily, chiefly owing to the inconstancy of the natives. Christians and Saracens conquered it by turns. The Normans, under Tancred, drove out the Saracens, and, by their connections with the Greeks, established there (while the rest of Europe was plunged in monkish ignorance) a most respectable monarchy, which flourished in arts and arms. About the year 1166, the popes being then all-powerful in Europe, their intrigues broke into the succession of Tancred's line, and Naples and Sicily at last came into the possession of the French; and the house of Anjou, with some interruptions and tragical revolutions, held it till the Spaniards drove them out in 1504, and it was then annexed to the crown of Spain.

The government of the Spaniards was so oppressive, that it gave rise to the famous revolt, headed by Massaniello, a young fisherman, without shoes or stockings. His success was so surprizing, that he obliged the haughty Spaniards to abolish the oppressive taxes, and to confirm the liberties of the people. Before these could be re-established perfectly, he turned delirious, through his continual agitations of body and mind, and was put to death at the head of his own mob. Naples and Sicily continued with the Spaniards till the year 1706, when the arch-duke Charles, afterwards emperor, took possession of the kingdom. By virtue of various treaties, which had introduced Don Carlos, the king of Spain's son, to the possession of Parma and Piacenza, a new war broke out in 1733, between the houses of Austria and Bourbon, about the possession of Naples, and Don Carlos was received into the capital, where he was proclaimed king of both Sicilies. This was followed by a very bloody campaign; but the farther effusion of blood was stopped by a peace between France and the emperor, to which the courts of Madrid and Naples at first demurred, but afterwards acceded in 1736, and Don Carlos remained king of Naples.

Upon his accession to the crown of Spain, in 1759, it being found that his eldest son was by nature incapacitated for reigning, he resigned the crown of Naples to his third son, Ferdinand VI.

The papal power is now evidently at a low ebb. The order of jesuits, who are not improperly called its Janissaries, has been exterminated out of France, Spain, Naples, and Portugal; and is but just tolerated in other Popish countries. The pope himself is treated by Roman Catholic princes with very little more ceremony than is due to him as bishop of Rome, and possessed of a temporal principality. This humiliation, it is reasonable to believe, will terminate in a total separation from the holy see of all its foreign enclumens, which even, since the beginning of the present century, were immense, and to the reducing his holiness to the exercise of his ecclesiastical functions as first bishop of Christendom.

HUNGARY, and its Incorporated PROVINCES.

HUNGARY received its name from the Huns, a Scythian nation, who possessed themselves of it in the ninth century. It lies between the 18th and 22d degree east long. and 45th and 49th deg. north lat. is 300 miles long, and 200 broad; has the Carpathian Mountains north; Servia south; Moravia, Austria, and Stiria west; and Walachia and Transylvania east. The northern parts are mountainous and barren, but wholesome. The southern districts are level and fertile, but unwholesome. The mountains contain a great variety of minerals, and even diamonds. Corn is very plentiful; and the Hungarian wines, particularly Tokay, exceeds all others in Europe. Horses, cattle, fish, and all kinds of vegetables abound, as do wild beasts, and various kinds of game; and tobacco, saffron, buckwheat, millet, melons, chefnuts, &c. are cultivated with success. The principal rivers are the Danube, Drave, Save, Teyffe, Merish, and the Temes.

Hungary is divided into Upper and Lower. The former contains

Zemplin, which gives name to a county that contains several inconsiderable towns, and many vineyards, that yield excellent wine, particularly that which takes its name from Tokay.

Skepus is a castle, which gives name to a county of great extent, abounding in some parts with fruitful corn-fields, rich pastures, pulse, and flax, and in others with woods and mountains. No wine is made in any part of it, but it has some iron and copper mines. Near the castle of Skepus is a cavern, in which, during the winter, the water is fluid; but in summer large quantities of ice are brought from it for cooling their liquors. Vitriol, or copperas, not only gushes out from the mines of this county, but breaks forth also from the surface of the ground. The village of Vockotz is famous for its medicinal springs.

Erlau is the capital of the county of Heves, in which are several other towns.

Great-Varadin, or Waradin, in the county of Bihar, has a strong castle on the east side, and the epithet of Great, to distinguish it from Little-Waradin, in the county of Chege.

Temes-Var is a strong town on the river Beg, the capital of the Bancat, or territory to which it gives name, has several times been in the possession of the Turks; but the Austrians gaining possession of it, it was incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary in 1778.

In Lower Hungary the principal places are

Presburg, situated on the Danube, about 46 miles east from Vienna. In it the regalia were kept; but they were lately removed to Vienna; and, in the cathedral, dedicated to St. Martin, the sovereign is crowned. The town is ancient, pleasantly situated, and enjoys a good air.

Lepto-Ujvar-Hradek is a castle which gives name to a county every where full of mountains and rocks. They abound in metals, minerals, and medicinal springs, with caverns, in which are many curious figures in drop-stone.

Gran is a royal free town on the Danube. Here are some natural warm baths. The neighbouring country is very pleasant and fruitful, and yields excellent wine.

There are two towns of the name of Buda, the Old and the New. Old Buda is a mean place; but the New is a royal free town, standing on the Danube, well fortified, and was the capital of the kingdom, and residence of the king, until it was seized by the Turks in 1529, in whose hands it continued till 1689. Here are several

warm baths. The town has considerable suburbs. The neighbouring country yields good red wine, and excellent melons. A few miles below Buda is an island, called Esepel, which formerly belonged to prince Eugene, who had a seat in the neighbourhood.

Schemnitz, the principal mine town in Hungary, is chiefly inhabited by Protestants. The gold and silver mines produce a considerable quantity of ore.

Cremnitz, the capital of the county of Beps, contains a mint; but the mines are so exhausted as scarce to deserve working.

The Hungarians are fierce, cruel, proud, and revengeful; better soldiers than mechanics, and hunters than scholars. The men are strong and well made; they shave their beards, leave whiskers on the upper lip, wear furs on the head, a close bodied coat girt with a sash, and a short cloak buckled under the arm, in order to leave the right hand at liberty. The horse, who carry a broad sword and battle-ax, are called hussars, and the foot are named Heydukes. Here are five languages spoken, viz. Hungarian, Slavonian, Walachian, German, and Latin. Though not above a fourth part of the people are Roman Catholics, yet that religion is the established one. Protestants, and particularly those of the Greek church, are tolerated; and Jews are doubly taxed.

The ordinary revenue of this kingdom is very considerable. Hungary can easily bring into the field a very formidable army.

TRANSYLVANIA, anciently Dacia, had its modern name from its situation Trans-Sylvas, that is, Beyond the Woods or Forests. It is situated on the south of Hungary, being about 160 miles long, and 150 broad. Its mountains yield silver, iron, lead, copper, quicksilver, rock salt, cinnabar, sulphur, vitriol, salt-petre, antimony, red ochre, isinglass, and other minerals; and several of them are clothed with vines. Many petrifying, salt, and medicinal springs, cold and hot, with a great variety of plants, are also found among them. The fields and vallies are rich and fertile, yielding corn, pulse, and fruits; and the forests abound with buffaloes, elks, stags, wild goats, bears, foxes, martins, lynxes, ermines, beavers, wild-asses, wolves, bees, &c. Vast numbers also of black cattle and horses are bred here. Of the latter there is a wild sort, with manes hanging down to the ground. The principal rivers are the Szamos, the Maros, and the Aluta. The inhabitants are of several sorts, as Hungarians, Saxons, Walachians, Arminians, Bulgarians, Greeks, Rascians, or Servians, and a people called Sekli. Here are also Jews and Zigduns, or Gypsies, as in Hungary. Roman Catholics, Protestants, Greeks, and Armenians, are all tolerated here. The Protestants are much more numerous than the Roman Catholics. The states, like those of Hungary, consist of the prelates or clergy, nobility, gentry, and royal towns.

SLAVONIA extends from the Adriatic to the Black Sea. It takes its name from the Sclavi, a Scythian nation. The inhabitants are a mixture of Slavonians, Croats, Wallachians, Germans, Venetians, Turks, Servians, or Rascians, and Hungarians. Slavonia was long subject to the Venetians, afterwards to the Turks; but in 1746 it was united to Hungary. The states send representatives to the diets of Hungary, and have also diets of their own. The air is pleasant and temperate; the face of the country level; and the soil fruitful in corn, wine, and pasture. The only religion, publicly tolerated, is the Roman Catholic; yet there are many of the Greek church.

CROATIA, situated west of Slavonia, is 80 miles long, and 70 broad. The Croats, or inhabitants of this country, derive their origin from the Sclavi, and speak the Slavonian language. Both horse and foot are good soldiers, especially the former, serving for much the same purposes as the hussars, pandours, and other irregulars. The soil, where cultivated, is fruitful in wine and oil, and many other products.

DALMATIA belongs to the Venetians, Austrians, Turks and Ragusans; that is, the former have the maritime places, and the three other powers the rest. The language is Slavonian, the religion Romish. The mountains are clad with olives, vines, myrtles, and sheep, and lined with gold, silver, and other ores; and

the plains are fertile. There is a people in this country and Carmola, called Uscocks, a rough savage race, much addicted to rapine, and noted for their agility. Their language is Wallachian, and their religion the Greek.

At Lara is a capacious harbour, and a citadel. To supply the want of fresh water the rain is carefully preserved in cisterns. The city is ancient, and contains magnificent structures.

Ragusa is a small republic under the protection of the Turks and Venetians.

Ragusa, the capital, is a small, but well built town, standing on the sea-coast, in a wholesome air, but barren soil, and having a good harbour, with several manufactures, and a considerable trade.

C H A P. XIX.

T U R K E Y I N E U R O P E.

HAVING already described the various parts of the Turkish Empire in Asia and Africa, in our account of those quarters of the globe, we have now only to treat of Turkey in Europe, which we shall do under the distinct heads of the Danubian Provinces, Little Tartary, and Greece.

DANUBIAN PROVINCES.

ROMANIA, the ancient Thrace, is about 280 miles in length, and 180 in breadth. The whole is well watered. The mountainous parts are cold; but the level parts, towards the sea, warm and fertile. This province is governed by a beglerbeg, and three sangiacs; and contains the following places:

Constantinople, the capital of the whole Ottoman empire, and the residence of the grand seignior. This city is admirably situated, and has not only a fine prospect, but a water communication with various parts of the empire. It was anciently called Byzantium; afterwards Constantinople, from Constantine the Great; and sometimes the Porte, on account of its being the finest port in Europe. It stands in 41 deg. north lat. and 24 deg. 40 min. east long. It is separated from Asia by a canal, is of a triangular form, and, including the suburbs, covers a great deal of ground. The streets are narrow, the houses mean, and the fortifications decayed. The innumerable bagnios, bazars, seraglios, and mosques, with their minarets, make a fine appearance at a distance. Fires are frequent; and the only method of preventing the conflagration from spreading is to blow up a number of them. The mosques, of which there are seven called royal, are handsome buildings, in detached situations, surrounded by lofty trees, and adorned by fountains. Near the harbour stands the seraglio, which is a collection of royal buildings, a mile and a half in circumference. Below the palace are the gardens, from whence the coast of Lesser Asia presents a fine prospect. The hall of Auderice; for foreign ambassadors, is amazingly magnificent, and contains a most superb throne. The most magnificent mosque is that of St. Sophia, which stands opposite to the great gate of the seraglio, upon an eminence, from whence there is a gentle descent to the sea shore. There are upwards of 100 pillars in this mosque, of the most curious marble, some of them porphyry and Egyptian granite; and the whole building is lined or wainscoted with marble. Besides this mosque are several others little inferior to it. These, and the rest, have usually hospitals, and endowed schools, belonging to each of them; but no painting or imagery are suffered in any of them. Here are several Greek and

Arminian, a few Roman Catholic, and one Lutheran church. The Atmeidan, or Hippodrome, where horse-races were anciently run, is still put to the same use almost as it was formerly; for here the Turks throw the gerit, or dart, riding full speed at the mark. At the south end of the city is the castle of seven, or rather eight, towers; for an eighth hath been lately added; the whole serving as a state prison.

In the markets for live cattle slaves of all ages and sexes are sold, and these are generally Christians; but where any of the girls have a good share of beauty, that may recommend them to men of figure, they are kept in handsome lodgings by their masters, and provided with good cloaths, and whatever else may recommend them to the purchasers.

The circumference of this city, including gardens, suburbs, &c. is very great, and the inhabitants exceeding numerous, consisting not only of Turks, but a great number of Greeks and other Christians, Armenians, Jews, &c. but the plague often makes dreadful havock among them. In August, 1784, a fire broke out in the quarter situated towards the harbour, and spreading into other quarters, about 10,000 houses were consumed. The environs are pleasant, and afford beautiful prospects.

Adrianople, the second city in this empire, is about eight miles in circumference. It received its name from the emperor Adrian, who rebuilt it after it had been destroyed by an earthquake. It stands on a fine plain in a fruitful country, well watered by rivers and rivulets, the chief of which is Mariza.

Philippopoli is inhabited chiefly by Christians of the Greek communion, and is the see of one of their archbishops.

Gallipoli is a sea port town, situate on the Thracian Chersonese.

BULGARIA is governed by the beglerbeg of Rumelia, with four subordinate sangiacs. The country is, in general, mountainous, but has some fertile spots, abounds in cattle, and contains a few iron mines, and medicinal springs.

Scopia, a populous town on the Bojane, is the principal place.

SERVIA has the rivers Save and Danube on the north. It is 250 miles in length, and upwards of 100 in breadth from north to south. The capital city is Belgrade, situated at the confluence of the Danube and the Save. It was a very large and important place, and has been several times taken and retaken by the Christians and Turks. It was taken by prince Eugene in August, 1717, and kept till 1739, when it was ceded to the Turks.

Turks, after demolishing the walls. They are now in possession of all Servia.

BOSNIA is 40 Turkish miles in length, 15 in breadth, and consists of 3 sangiacships, in which are several inconsiderable towns.

WALLACHIA, situated to the south of Moldavia, is of a triangular form. The air is temperate, and the soil fruitful. Cattle abound, and wood is scarce. The whole is well watered. The established religion is the Greek church; and the common people are extremely ignorant. The waywode, prince, despot, or hospodar of Wallachia, is a vassal of the Ottoman Porte, paying a yearly tribute, and furnishing a body of troops in time of war. The principal places are Terves, the capital, on the river Jalonitz, 60 miles north of the Danube, which has a tolerable trade, with some fortifications; and Buckereft, a strong town, and archbishop's see, 40 miles north of the Danube, which has some trade, and is the residence of the waywode.

MOLDAVIA, situated to the east of Transylvania, is, in general, a barren spot, and the inhabitants are a mixture of various neighbouring nations. The principal place is Jassy, the capital, and residence of the waywode; and Choczim, a strong town on the Niefter, near the borders of Podolia.

LITTLE TARTARY.

THE principal parts of Tartary in Europe are the following:

BESSARABIA, which borders on the Black Sea. The inhabitants are called White Hordes: they rove from place to place, along the Niefter, and live on the flesh of horses, oxen, cheese, milks, particularly that of mares, &c. The chief place is Bender, which, in the Turkish language, signifies a strong pass. It was here that Charles XII. of Sweden, resided after his defeat at Pultowa.

BUDZIAC TARTARY is inhabited only near the sea, and along the banks of the river. Ockzakow, the chief place, situated at the influx of the Nieper into the Black Sea, is very strong. Notwithstanding the force of Russia has repeatedly been directed against it, the Turks still continue masters of it.

G R E E C E.

THIS country, with respect to arms and arts, was once the most celebrated in the world. It is situated to the north of the Mediterranean, being 400 miles in length, and 240 in breadth. The air is temperate, but fluctuating; the soil fruitful, but uncultivated; and the religion Christianity, but mixed with superstition. The provinces are

MACEDONIA, situated to the west of the Archipelago. It has a sharp, clear, and wholesome air, and produces corn, wine, and oil. It is well watered, but mountainous. The only considerable place is the town called Karais, the residence of the Turkish aga.

Salonichi, or Thessalonica, is situated at the bottom of a bay of the Egean Sea. Here St. Paul preached, and we have still two of his epistles, written to the Thessalonians. It is a populous town, and has a good foreign trade.

ALBANIA, comprehending Illyricum and Epirus, is situated to the east of the gulph of Venice, being 190 miles long, and 96 broad. The soil is fertile, but little cultivated; and the inhabitants robust, but ignorant. The principal places are Scutari, which carries on a considerable trade; and Durazzo, which has a good harbour and castle.

The district called Lower Albania, or Epirus, is fruitful, and the inhabitants are well adapted for a military life. The towns are totally decayed.

THESSALY, now JANNA, is bounded by Macedon on the north, by the Archipelago on the east, by Achaia on the south, and Epirus on the west. The chief town is Larissa, said to be the birth-place of Achilles. Philip, the father of Alexander the Great, resided here. It carries on a considerable trade, and is pleasantly situated on the river Peneus.

LIVADIA, formerly ACHAIA, is fruitful though mountainous, being well watered. The principal place, Sentines, the ancient Athens, situated near the bay of Engia, stands almost in the middle of a plain, being a barren, but healthful soil, the river Ilissus almost surrounding it.

Athens, once renowned as the seat of the arts and sciences, is still a source of the most magnificent and celebrated antiquities in the world. Among these are the remains of the temple of Minerva. The architrave is adorned with basso-relievos, admirably executed, representing the wars of the Athenians. To the south-east of the citadel are 17 beautiful columns of the Corinthian order, thought to be the remains of the emperor Adrian's palace. Just without the city stands the temple of Theseus. On the outside of the porticos are represented the feats of Theseus. On the south-west of Athens is a beautiful structure, commonly called the Lanthorn of Demosthenes. On the frieze are beautifully represented the Labours of Hercules. Here are also to be seen the temple of the winds, the remains of the theatre of Bacchus, of the magnificent aqueduct of the emperor Adrian, of the temples of Jupiter Olympus and Augustus, and of several other noble structures.

Lepanto, the ancient Naupactus, is surrounded by fruitful fields and vineyards, producing corn, rice, olives, oranges, lemons, and citrons, in great plenty. The wine is esteemed the best in Greece. Near the entrance of the bay the Venetians, and their allies, commanded by Don John of Austria, natural son of Charles V. obtained a complete naval victory over the Turks, in the year 1571.

Livadia, situated on the gulph of Lepanto, is a populous trading town, inhabited by Turks and Greeks.

THE PELOPONNESUS, or MOREA, is a large peninsula, joined to Greece by the isthmus of Corinth. It is 120 miles long, and 155 broad, tolerably fertile, except in the mountainous parts, and, in general, well watered. The principal places are

Corinth, the modern Gerame, situated between the bays of Lepanto and Engria, 50 miles west of Athens. The buildings are not now contiguous, but intermixed with fields and gardens, which make it look like a village. The castle is situated on a high steep rock above it, of very difficult access. The country about it abounds with corn, wine, and oil. From the castle there is one of the finest prospects in the world, having the sea in full view on the east and west, and a fine country north and south. The narrowest part of the isthmus is about six miles over.

Patras, eight miles west of Corinth, is the see of an archbishop, formerly contained a temple of Diana, and is at present a place of some trade. Lacedemon, or Sparta, now named Mistra, is famous for a code of laws received from Lycurgus.

Napoli di Romana is a strong town, with a good harbour, and a considerable trade.

Olympia, now Langanico, once famous for the games celebrated on the neighbouring plains, every fifth year, from whence the computation of time by Olympiads took its rise, is now an inconsiderable place.

In our survey of Asiatic Turkey we have given an ample account of the character, customs, manners, &c. of the Turks in general; and as those of Europe differ in no essential points, we have only to refer the reader to the same as contained in the first volume of our work.

C H A P. XX.

EUROPEAN ISLANDS.

I C E L A N D.

THIS island, which received its name from the great masses of ice that are seen near it, is situated in the Atlantic Ocean, between 63 and 68 deg. north lat. and between 10 and 26 deg. west long. It is about 400 miles in length, and 150 in breadth. For two months together the sun never sets; and in the winter it never rises for the same space, at least not entirely. The greater part of the island is mountainous, stoney, and barren; but in some places there are excellent pastures, and the grass has a fine scent. The ice, which gets loose from the more northern country in May, brings with it a large quantity of wood, and several animals, such as foxes, wolves, and bears.

The whole country is well watered with large and small rivers, that flow from the mountains; besides rivulets and large lakes, all of which abound with excellent fish. There are no forests in any part of the island; but this defect is in a great measure compensated by large quantities of fine timber, that come floating ashore in different parts of the sea-coast.

With respect to the natural productions of this island, such as quadrupeds, birds, insects, and fish, they are so much alike with those of Norway, Greenland, &c. that their descriptions may be found by referring back to the natural history of those countries.

The most remarkable phenomena for which this island is famous are the mountains, several of which are exceeding lofty, and always covered with ice and snow. In the vallies between them the inhabitants live; and in those near the coast are plains covered with verdure. But notwithstanding the amazing coldness of this island, earthquakes and volcanos have been more known here than in many countries in much warmer climates. Mount Hecla is the most noted mountain, and is a volcano, which sometimes throws out sulphurous torrents. The last eruption of this mountain happened in 1766. It began on the 5th of April, and continued to the 7th of September following. Among the curiosities of Iceland, none are more worthy of attention, than the hot spouting water springs with which this island abounds. Some of these springs spout columns of water, of several feet in thickness, to the height of many fathoms. These springs are of unequal degrees of heat. The cows that drink of the cooler springs yield an extraordinary quantity of milk. They are also deemed salutary to the human species.

Stones of various colours are found in this country, but no marble. It likewise produces a kind of chrysal, a large quantity of pumice-stones, and, near the volcanos, two sorts of agate. It is rich in minerals, though there are no mines worked in the country. The principal article of this island is sulphur.

The Icelanders are, in general, well made, and possess a considerable share of bodily strength; though they seldom live to a very old age. In general they are sober, honest, docile, and industrious; but, like all others who dwell in cold countries, they are fond of drinking spirituous liquors. They are subject to various disorders, particularly the rheumatism, fevers, asthma, and consumption; but the leprosy, or rather a kind of hereditary scurvy, is the prevailing disease. Their chief employment is fishing, to which they bring up their children as soon as they have strength enough to row a boat. The dress both of the men and women is much the same as that worn by the Norwegians. The men, in fishing, wear a garment of sheep-skin over their cloaths, and this they frequently soften by rubbing it over with fish liver.

The houses in Iceland nearly resemble those of Norway; with this difference, that as they are not so well supplied with timber, they make more use of stones, turf, and mud-walls. The better sort possess tolerable houses, well furnished. The roofs are either boarded or thatched, and their walls are thick and warm.

The Icelanders are remarkably ingenious and docile. The country not only affords a great number of able boat-carpenters, and handicraftsmen, but has likewise produced men of some learning. As there are no public schools in the country, the children are taught to read, and instructed in the articles of religion, at home, by their parents, or by the ministers of the different parishes, in the course of their visitations. They do not reckon time by the clock or hour, but take their observations from the sun, stars, or tide, and parcel out the day into different divisions, each of which has its own appellation; such as midnight, twilight, broad-day, forenoon, noon, afternoon, evening, mid-evening, &c.

As the inhabitants of this island were originally a colony from Norway, they still speak the old Norwegian dialect. The Lutheran is the only religion here tolerated. The country is divided into two bishoprics; namely, the see of Skalholt for the south, and that of Hólm for the north. The clergy here have no tythes; but some small dues are paid to them either in merchandize or money. The churches are, in general, low, and but indifferently decorated; nevertheless they are clean, decent, and commodious.

The Icelanders are ruled by a governor, called Staffs-amptmand, or rather by his deputy, the Amptmand. The former is generally chosen by the king from the Danish nobility, and resides at Copenhagen; but the latter lives in Iceland, at the king's palace of Ræsted, on a salary of 400 rix-dollars per annum. His majesty likewise appoints a receiver, who collects all the taxes and revenues, and transmits them to the treasury. Besides the stewards, there are Syffelmen, who farm the king's taxes in certain districts, and act as justices of the peace, each within his own province. The king's revenues arise from taxes and dues, an annual sum paid by the company of merchants, secularized abbey lands, and other royal demesnes farmed out to the natives.

Law suits, in spiritual matters, or concerning freehold property, are determined by the Norwegian laws; but in every dispute relative to *meum* and *tuum*, the old Iceland laws take place. There is no other legal method of punishing men with death than beheading, or hanging. The women, condemned to die, are sewed in a sack and drowned.

With respect to the commerce of this island, its exports consist of dried fish, salt meat, butter, tallow, train-oil, coarse woollen cloth, stockings, gloves, raw wool, sheep-skins, lamb-skins, fox furs, edder-down, and feathers. The imports are timber, fishing lines and hooks, tobacco, bread, horse-shoes, brandy, wine, salt, linen, silk, and a few other necessaries, as well as superfluities for the better sort.

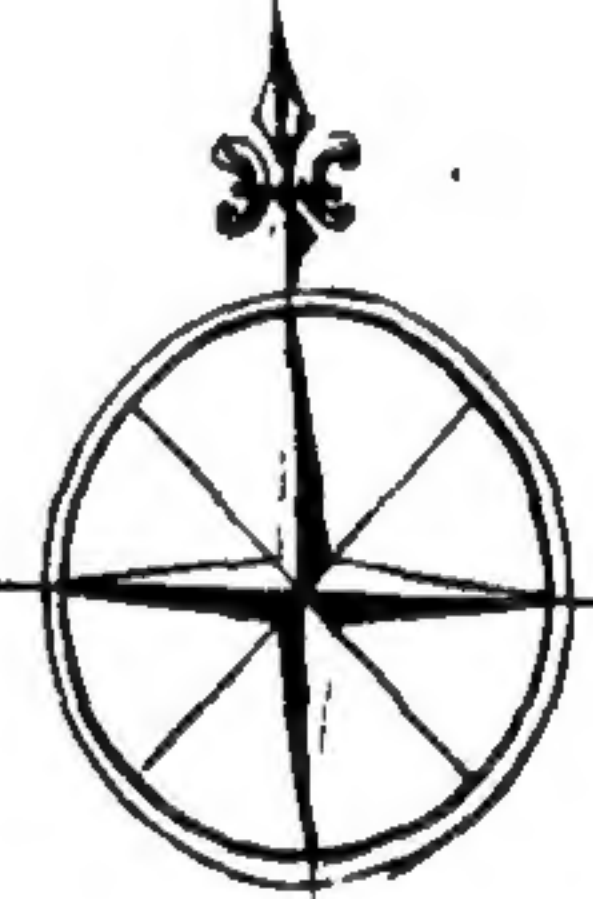
The whole trade of Iceland is engrossed by a monopoly of Danes, indulged with an exclusive charter. This company maintains factories at all the harbours in the island, where they exchange the foreign goods for the merchandize of the country; and as the balance is in favour of the Icelanders, they pay the overplus in Danish money, which is the only current coin in this island. The weights and measures here are nearly the same with those used in Denmark.

G R E A T

A
New and Correct
MAP OF
GREAT BRITAIN
from the most accurate
SURVEYS.
By Tho^s Bowen

G E R M A N

British Statute Miles



O C E A N

S E A

I R I S H

DUBLIN

S T G E O R G E S

E N G L I S H C H A N N E L

FRANCE

W. Long.

from London

E. Long.

2 from London

GREAT BRITAIN.

THIS island, known by the general name of Great Britain, is not only the largest in Europe, but one of the most populous, rich, and fruitful. It includes England, Wales, and Scotland, the latter having been united to the former in 1707. Great Britain is situated between 50 and 59 deg. of north lat. and between 1 deg. 42 min. and 6 deg. long. Its length is about 625 miles, and its utmost breadth 338.

We shall treat of Great Britain under two distinct heads, South and North; the former comprehending England and Wales, the latter Scotland.

SOUTH BRITAIN.

SECTION I.

ENGLAND.

Boundaries, Situation, Climate, Soil, Mountains, Forests, Rivers, Medicinal Springs, Vegetable and Animal Productions, &c.

THIS kingdom is bounded on the north by Scotland, on the east by the German Ocean, on the south by the English Channel, and on the west by the Irish Sea.

England, from its situation, is liable to great uncertainty of weather. The climate, however, is far preferable to that of any part of the continent near the same latitude, the summers being neither so hot, nor the winters so cold. The air, in many places, is subject to vapours; but these vapours nourish the vegetable system, and, by that means, produce good effects. Upon the whole, the air is healthy, the soil fertile, the face of the country beautifully diversified, the prospects admirable, and the lands well cultivated.

England, except in a few places, exhibits to the view an enchanting variety of gently swelling hills, level plains, corn fields, meadow grounds, wood and water, intermingled in the most agreeable manner. The champaign country is parcelled out into beauteous enclosures, surrounded with quick-set hedges, intermixed with stately oaks and elms. The farm houses, scattered about in great numbers all over the face of the kingdom, appear large, neat, and convenient, in the midst of their offices or out-houses. The uncultivated part of the ground is cloathed with a perpetual verdure; and the lands, in general, display the perfection of agriculture. The seats of noblemen and gentlemen rise like enchanted castles on every hand. Populous villages, thriving towns, and flourishing cities, abound in every part of the kingdom, which excels all the states of Europe in beauty, opulence, and cultivation.

The most noted mountains in England are, the Peak in Derbyshire, the Wreken in Shropshire, the Endle in Lancashire, the Wolds in Yorkshire, and the Cheviot Hills on the borders of Scotland.

The remarkable forests are those of Windsor, Epping, Dean, Sherwood, and that called New Forest.

The principal rivers are the Thames, the noblest perhaps in the world; the Severn, the Medway, the Trent, the Tyne, the Avon, and the Humber, besides several others of less note. The bridges over the Thames, at Westminster and Black-friars, for commodiousness, architecture, and workmanship, stand unparalleled. The rivers, in general, not only fertilize the ground, but conduce to the improvement of commerce.

To enumerate the medicinal springs would be needless; suffice it, therefore, to observe, that the principal are those of Bath, Buxton, Cheltenham, Dulwich, Epsom, Harrowgate, and Scarborough, each of which have been recommended by the faculty for their specific qualities.

Of minerals, England produces tin, lead, copper, and iron. The pits, in the northern parts, furnish immense quantities of coals. Other places produce much allum and salt; and there is abundance of fuller's earth, which is of the utmost importance in the cloth manufactory.

England produces corn, not only sufficient for the inhabitants, but to bring in large sums of money from the exports. It is difficult to ascertain the quantities of barley, rye, peas, beans, vetches, oats, and other grain, that grow in the kingdom. The most uninformed reader cannot be ignorant that the most excellent fruits, as apples, pears, plumbs, cherries, peaches, apricots, nectarines, currants, gooseberries, &c. abound here, nor that great quantities of cyder and perry are made in some counties, particularly those of Devon and Hereford. Our kitchen gardens are stocked with all sorts of greens, roots, and sallads. Wood for dying is cultivated in Bucks and Bedfordshire; and in many parts is clover, cinquefoil, trefoil, and other meliorating grasses for the soil. It is the province of a botanist to recount the various kinds of useful and salutary herbs, shrubs, and roots, that grow in different parts. The soil of Kent, Essex, Surry, and Hampshire, is most favourable to the culture of hops, which is become a considerable article of trade. The timber is various and excellent.

The English oxen are large and fat, and the beef has a delicious flavor. The sheep are large, and even more valuable for their fleece than their flesh, as vast numbers of fleeces are annually shorn and manufactured in the kingdom. The horses for the saddle and chace are finely proportioned, and full of mettle; those for draught are amazingly strong; and the war horses have the greatest spirit imaginable. Among the animals peculiar to England we must not omit mentioning the mastiffs and bull dogs, whose spirit is so great that they will singly attack any animal whatever. But it must be remembered that this surprizing spirit degenerates when they are transported to any other country.

Tame fowls are pretty much the same in England as in other countries, and there is plenty and variety of wild fowl. The feathered choir is also numerous; and whether we respect the gratification of the palate or the ear, each is amply provided for. We shall only add that the English game cock is remarkable for his courage, but, like the mastiff and bull dog, degenerates if carried to any other country.

Few countries are better supplied than England with river and sea fish. Of the former are salmon, trout, pike, perch, carp, tench, flounders, smelts, &c. There is a delicate lake fish called char. The chief sea fish are cod, haddock, mackarel, whiting, herrings, skate, soles, plaice, &c. The John Dory, found towards the western coast, is reckoned a great delicacy, as is the red mullet. As to shell fish, there are lobsters, oysters, muscles, cockles, &c. The best fish that comes to the tables of the great in London is the turbot, sold to the English by the Dutch, who take them upon the English coast. Attempts have been made to carry on a fishery for that species, but they have hitherto proved abortive.

With respect to reptiles, such as adders, vipers, snakes, and worms; and insects, such as ants, gnats, wasps, and flies, England is pestered with them as well as other parts of Europe.

SECTION II.

Grand Divisions of England. Descriptions of the Counties included in each Division.

WHEN the Romans added England to their other provinces, they divided it into three parts. The Saxons afterwards erected seven kingdoms in it, under the title of the Saxon Heptarchy, viz. those of Kent, South Saxons, East Angles, West Saxons, Northumberland, East Saxons, and Mercia.

Since

Since the Norman invasion England has been divided into counties, a certain number of which, excepting Middlesex and Cheshire, are comprehended in six circuits, or annual progress of the judges, for administering justice to the subjects who are at a distance from the capital. They are as follow. The home circuit, the Norfolk circuit, the Oxford circuit, the midland circuit, the western circuit, and the northern circuit. Each of these comprehends a certain number of counties. The home circuits are Essex, Hertford, Kent, Surrey, and Sussex. In the Norfolk, Bucks, Bedfordshire, Huntingdonshire, Cambridgeshire, Suffolk, and Norfolk. In the Oxford, Oxon, Berks, Gloucestershire, Worcestershire, Monmouthshire, Herefordshire, Salop, and Staffordshire. In the midland, Warwickshire, Leicestershire, Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, Lincolnshire, Rutlandshire, and Northamptonshire. In the western, Hants, Wilts, Dorsetshire, Somersetshire, Devonshire, and Cornwall. In the northern, Yorkshire, the bishopric of Durham, Northumberland, Lancashire, Westmorland, and Cumberland. In England we number 40 counties, containing 25 cities, 172 boroughs, and 8 cinque-ports, which are Hastings, Dover, Sandwich, Hythe, Romney, Rye, Winchelsea, and Seaford.

We shall now enter upon a description of the situation of, and the principal places in, each county.

CORNWALL is the most western county of England, and, in shape, resembles what its name implies, a horn. It abounds in tin and lead; produces mundic, which affords copper as good as the Swedish; is famous for the best kind of slate tiles; and furnishes the builder with moor stone, which, when polished, looks like Egyptian granite. It has the title of a duchy, and the king's eldest son is duke of Cornwall.

Launceston is a corporation town, and sends two members to parliament. It was formerly defended by a castle, which is now in ruins.

Falmouth is the richest and best trading town in the county. The harbour is so commodious that ships of the greatest burthen come up to its quay. It is guarded by the castles of St. Mawes and Pendennis. There is a sufficient shelter in many creeks for the whole royal navy to ride here safe from any winds. The town is well built, and its trade very considerable.

Penzance, the farthest town in the west of England, is well built and populous, and has many ships belonging to it. Veins of lead, tin, and copper, are seen here even to the utmost extent of low water mark.

DEVONSHIRE is naturally sterile, but rendered fertile, in many parts, by art, and contains the following principal places.

Exeter, the capital of the county, and one of the principal cities of the kingdom. It is situated on a rising ground, watered by the river Ex, has six gates, and, with the suburbs, is two miles in circumference. The cathedral, called St. Peter's, is a magnificent and curious fabric. This city had several charters, confirmed by most of our kings, many of which have honoured it with their royal presence. Its bridge over the Ex is of great length, and has houses on both sides towards the ends. It has four principal streets (the chief of which is called High-street) all centering in the middle of the city, which is well supplied with water. There is an old castle here, called Rougement, supposed to have been built by the West Saxon kings. It is now much decayed, only a part being kept up for the assizes, &c. The city is remarkable for a fair at Lammas, at which the goods sold in the woollen manufactory are numerous.

Totnes stands on the river Dart. Here are a spacious church, a town hall, and a school-house. Its chief trade is the woollen manufacture. There is a fine stone bridge over the river, which abounds with delicate trout, and other good fish. It is diverting to see them catch salmon peel here, with a spaniel trained to drive them into a shove net. Sometimes a man will take up 20 salmon at a time, from 14 to 20 inches long, for which they ask only two-pence a-piece.

Plymouth, 216 miles from London, at the influx of the rivers Plym and Tamar into the channel, contains near as many inhabitants as Exeter, and is one of the chief magazines in the kingdom, owing to its port which is one of the largest and safest in England. It consists of two harbours, capable of containing 1000 sail of ships; and is defended by several forts, particularly a strong citadel, of large extent. It is the general rendezvous of ships outward bound; and is very convenient for homeward bound ships to provide themselves with pilots up the channel.

About two miles up the mouth of the river Tamar, in an inlet of the sea, distinguished from Cat-water by the name of Hamouze, and commanded by the castle on St. Nicholas Island, is a royal dock for building and repairing ships. Here is a charity-school, four hospitals, and a work-house. Off the entrance of the bay lies the Edystone rock, which is covered, at high water, and on which the ingenious Mr. Winstanley built a light-house, that was blown down in that terrible hurricane in November 1703, and himself, with those that were in it, never more heard of.

Dartmouth stands on the side of a craggy hill, and is about a mile long. The streets are irregular, and the houses generally high. The harbour is good, and 500 sail of ships may ride safe in the basin. Here is a large quay, and a spacious street before it, where many considerable merchants live. Here are three churches, and a large meeting house. Dartmouth castle is very ancient.

DORSETSHIRE, situated on the south east of Devonshire, is, like the two last, a maritime county. It is one of the pleasanter and most fertile in the kingdom, abounding in corn, cattle, sheep, &c.

Dorchester is the county town, and was the most considerable station of the Romans in those parts. They had a camp near it, with five trenches, enclosing ten acres, the vestiges of which are still visible at a place called Maiden Castle, about a mile from the town. It is situated on an ascent, on the banks of the river Frome. St. Peter's, Trinity, and All Saints churches, and the shire-hall, are the principal buildings in the town. The Ikenild street of the Romans is plainly traced here; and the foundations of the old Roman wall appear quite round the town, except toward the east, where the ditch is filled up, and a street built upon it; yet the place is still called The Walls. The Romans had an amphitheatre in the neighbourhood, now called Maumbury, the terrace of the top of which is a noted place for the inhabitants to walk on, having an elegant prospect of the town and country round it.

Weymouth is a well built town, and has a good harbour, defended by two forts. Many substantial merchants reside here, and carry on an extensive trade. It is joined to Melcomb-Regis by a wooden bridge, over the little river Wey. The united towns have a church, and about 400 houses.

Portland is a peninsula. It is scarcely seven miles in circumference, and but thinly inhabited. The inland parts are famous for quarries of the finest free stone, and most durable, with which St. Paul's church, Westminster-bridge, &c. were erected.

At Purbeck is found the best tobacco pipe clay in England.

SOMERSETSHIRE, situated to the north east of Devonshire, is a very fertile county, and more celebrated for its mineral waters than any other county in the kingdom.

Bristol, 12 miles from Bath, is the second city in the British dominions, for trade, wealth, and number of inhabitants. Though it lay in two counties, before it was made a county of itself, which was in the reign of Edward III. it was by the parliament rolls reckoned in Somersetshire. The cathedral was formerly the collegiate church of St. Augustin's monastery, which, when dissolved by Henry VIII. and erected into the see of a bishop, he applied its revenues to the maintenance of a bishop, dean, prebendaries, &c.

There are in this city 18 churches. The chief is St. Mary Redcliff's, without the walls, built in the reign of Henry VI. by William Cannings, alderman of this city. This is a magnificent structure, in the Gothic taste. Here are a stately bridge of three arches over the Avon, a square, a custom-house, three excellent market places, besides a fish market, near 20 hospitals, and other benevolent foundations, a guildhall, an exchange, two fine quays, several docks, a corn market, and three gates.

This city, which, with the suburbs, lies compact, being almost as broad as long, is about six miles in circumference on the Gloucester side, and three miles on the Somerset side, which, in the whole, make nine miles in circumference. The houses are close and crowded, especially towards the bridge and the heart of the city, where many of them are five or six stories high. The ascent to St. Michael's Hill is very steep.

Bath was famous in the time of the Romans for its medicinal waters, called, by Ptolemy, the Hot Waters; by Antoninus, the Waters of the Sun; by the Britons, Caer Baden, the City of Bath; and by the Saxons, Ak-mancheſter, or the City of Valetudinarians. The names of the several baths are, the King's-bath, the Queen's-bath, the Cross-bath, and the Hot-bath. In the King's-bath is a statue of Bladud, eighth king of the Britons, with an inscription under it, importing that he discovered the use of these baths 863 years before Christ. That this place was of old a resort of cripples and diseased persons, appears from the crutches hung up at the several baths, as the thank-offerings of those who came hither lame, and went away cured: but the city of Bath is now more frequented by the sound for their pleasure, than by the sick for their health. The springs were doubtless separated from the common springs by the Romans, and fenced in with a durable wall. The company assemble in the pump-room every morning between the hours of eight and ten to drink the waters, a band of music always attending to entertain them. A fine marble statue of the late Richard Nash, Esq; executed at the expence of the corporation, perpetuates the memory of a man, under whose government the city of Bath rose to its present degree of splendor.

Bath has amazingly increased of late years in the extent and elegance of its buildings. The first improvement was the erection of Queen's-square, began in 1729, in the center of which is a garden, and an obelisk 70 feet high, in honour of his late Royal Highness Frederick, Prince of Wales. When the square was finished, Mr. Wood (an eminent architect) planned several streets contiguous to it; and, in 1739, began the North and South Parades, Pierrepont-street, Duke-street, and others. In 1754 he planned the Circus, a beautiful circular pile of buildings, uniformly consisting of the Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian orders. Grey-street, Brook-street, Bennet-street, and the Crescent, ought not to be here omitted. The last mentioned is a most magnificent and much admired pile of buildings, in the elliptical form, consisting of one order only of Ionic pillars supporting the upper cornice, and commanding a prospect beyond all description.

Wells has its name from the wells and springs about the city, which is but of small extent, though well inhabited. The buildings are neat, and the cathedral is stately.

Cheddar is famed for fine cheese. It is common here for three or four dairies to join their milk, and to make what is called a Cheddar Cheese.

Frome is situated 10 miles from Bath. The woollen manufacture is reckoned more considerable here than in any part of England.

Bridgewater is seated on the river Parret, over which there is a stone bridge. Ships of considerable burden come up to its quay; and, from its convenient situation for commerce, the inhabitants have a pretty good coasting trade.

Glastonbury is famous for its abbey, some magnificent ruins of which are still remaining.

Taunton is a handsome town, and has several large woollen manufactories.

WILTSHIRE, situated to the north-east of Somersetshire, is rather unfertile, but abounds in sheep. The principal place is

Salisbury, or New Sarum, an episcopal see, and a large well built pleasant city, near which four rivers join their streams, and flow through every street. The cathedral is considered as the most elegant and regular in the kingdom, particularly for its lofty stone spire. The number of windows, pillars, and doors, in this fabric, also add to its celebrity. There are three other churches besides the cathedral. The market-place, in which is a fine town house, is a square so spacious that three or four battalions of foot may be mustered without being crowded. There are some remarkable monuments in the cathedral and other places.

HAMPSHIRE, situated to the north east of Dorsetshire, is famous for hogs, sheep, and timber. The principal places are

Winchester, on the Itching. It resembles an amphitheatre, and is surrounded by chalk hills. On St. Catherine's Hill, near the city, are the remains of a camp; and on the west gate was a castle, where the West Saxon kings kept their court. The cathedral is venerable and large, but not elegant. Here are six other churches, two hospitals, a college, several public schools, &c.

Southampton, 12 miles from Winchester, stands between two large rivers, the Itching and the Test, that fall here into that called Southampton Water. It has a wall almost round it, of a hard kind of stone. Henry VI. made it a county of itself, which renders it independent of the lord lieutenant. The chief street is one of the broadest and longest in England. It has one large quay, and one other called West-Quay, where the Guernsey and Jersey vessels always anchor, with which islands they carry on a considerable trade. The approach to the town, from the London road, is extremely pleasant.

Portsmouth, the great key of England, is regularly fortified, and stands at the entrance of a creek, on the island of Portsea. It is also defended by South-Sea-castle, Blockhouse-castle, and a chain that goes across the harbour from the round tower to the opposite shore. This is the narrowest point of entrance to a large and safe harbour. The dock-yard is as convenient as can be imagined, capable of docking 25 or 30 ships in a fortnight. In the dock is likewise a royal academy. The Common, as it is called, is the residence chiefly of the artificers and officers of the dock. Here is one very magnificent church, having on the top of the steeple a ship for a weather-cock.

BERKSHIRE, situated to the north of Hampshire, has a fertile soil, and contains

Windsor, 21 miles from London, a pleasant and ancient town on the Thames, and has a fine castle, built by William the Conqueror. Edward III. who was born here, enlarged and beautified it; built the royal palace and chapel, together with St. George's hall and its chapel, and instituted here the Order of the Garter. Queen Elizabeth added the noble terrace, faced with free-stone ramparts, like those of a fortified city, which is scarce to be equalled in Europe. King Charles II. laid out great sums in repairing, new modelling, and furnishing this palace; and there is a fine equestrian statue of him, erected in 1680, over a great well in the inner court. St. George's hall is esteemed one of the finest in Europe. The royal chapel is beautifully adorned with curious paintings. The round tower is built like an amphitheatre, very high, with elegant apartments. On the north side is St. George's, or the chapel of the garter, one of the most elegant Gothic structures in the universe. In the choir are the stalls of the knights of the order, and their banners over them, with a throne for their sovereign.

Here are two parks; the little park, about three miles, and the great park 14 miles, in circumference, stocked with all kinds of game, and lavishly embellished by the hand of nature. In the forest, which is 30 miles round, are several seats; particularly Cranbourn Lodge, which stands on the top of a hill, and has a view not only of Windsor and its parks, but of London and the adjacent country.

Reading, the principal town of the county, stands on the river Thames, near the influx of the Kennet, and has three parish churches, built of flint and square stone. An hospital was founded here, and liberally endowed, by archbishop Laud. It had anciently a monastery, equal to most in England, both for riches and beauty. The gate-house is still pretty entire; and there are some remains of its walls eight feet thick. The most remarkable curiosity of natural history is a continued bed of oyster-shells, which, for many generations, has been found near this place, extended through the circumference of five or six acres of ground.

SURREY, situated to the south of Middlesex, is a pleasant, healthy, fertile county. The principal place (exclusive of the borough of Southwark) is

Guildford, a large well-built town, on the river Wey, which is navigable from thence to the Thames. Not far from the river are ruinous walls of an old castle, this place having, in the Saxon times, been a royal villa, where many of our kings kept their festivals. Here are three parish churches. The road to Chichester and Portsmouth lies through this town, which has long been famous for good inns and accommodations. Here are alms-houses, liberally endowed, and the remains of a once famous manufactory of cloth. In the neighbourhood are the walls of what was formerly called St. Catherine's Chapel, built with a sort of tile, which, when broken, has the appearance of iron, and the cement of them is in a manner impenetrable. The road leading from Guildford to Farnham is remarkable for running along upon the ridge of an high chalky hill, called St. Catherine's, no wider than the road itself, from whence there is a delightful prospect.

Richmond, anciently called Shene, is remarkable for its beautiful situation and royal palace, in which are many curious paintings by the most eminent masters. Queen Caroline took great delight here; and his present majesty has made great improvements in the gardens of this delightful place. The town runs up the hill a full mile to the park, with small gardens declining all the way to the Thames, over which has been erected a very neat bridge.

SUSSEX, a maritime county, situated to the south of Surrey, abounds in sheep, wool, &c. The chief place is

Chichester, situated on a plain near an arm of the sea. It is a very neat small city, walled about in a circular form; with four gates opening to the four principal streets, which meet in the center, where is a beautiful cross. All the space or quarter between the west and south gates is taken up with the cathedral, the bishop's palace, the dean's, prebendaries, and vicars houses. The church itself is not large, but very neat, with a high stone spire of an octagonal form, esteemed a complete piece of architecture.

KENT, situated to the south-east of Middlesex, abounds in hops, wood, and fruit. The principal places are

Canterbury, the chief of the county, and the metropolitan see of all England. The cathedral is a noble pile of Gothic architecture. Seven kings have been interred in this church; and St. Augustine, with the seven archbishops that succeeded him, lie in one vault. Here was the shrine of Thomas-a-Becker, so famous for its riches offered by votaries and pilgrims from most parts of the universe. Among the ruins of the Roman and Saxon buildings, and of many religious houses, are the walls of a chapel, said to have been a Christian temple before St. Augustine's time. Two gates of the monastery, built by Ethelbert, king of Kent,

about the year 600, at the request of Austin the monk are still remaining. Here are six wards, denominated from its six gates, fifteen parish churches, and several hospitals.

Rocheſter lies in a valley on the east ſide of the river Medway, and, except Canterbury, is the oldeſt ſee in England. Its cathedral is ſaid to have been built by Ethelbert, king of Kent. Here is a ſtone bridge, conſiſting of 25 arches, which is eſteemed one of the fineſt in England. Rocheſter appears to have been a Roman ſtation, from the Roman Watling-ſtreet running through the town.

Tunbridge, or Town of Bridges, is ſo called from the river Ton, and four other ſtreams of the Medway which riſe in the Weald, running hither, over each of which is a ſtone bridge. The river Medway is made navigable up to the town. Five miles from Tunbridge town are Tunbridge Wells, much frequented on account of their mineral waters.

Margate, or St. John's, is ſituated on the north ſide of the Iſle of Thanet, and is a member of the town and port of Dover, to which it is ſubject in all matters of civil juriſdiction. The principal ſtreet is near a mile in length, and built on an eaſy deſcent, by which means the upper part is clean and dry, but the lower end much otherwiſe. The pier is maintained and preſerved by certain payments for all goods and commodities ſhipped or landed. The bathing-rooms are not large, but convenient. There are ſome of theſe rooms that employ ſeveral machines till near the time of high water, which, at the ebb of the tide, ſometimes runs two or three hundred yards into the bay. The ſands are ſo ſafe and clean, and every convenience for bathing is carried to ſuch great perfection, that it is no wonder this place ſhould be frequented by multitudes of people, who bathe in the ſea either for health or pleaſure.

Greenwich is noted for its magnificent hoſpital for decayed ſeamen, its delightful park, and its astronomical obſervatory. The hoſpital is thought to be one of the fineſt ſtructures of the kind in the world, and its noble hall is finely painted. It was formerly noted for its palace, where Queen Elizabeth was born; but that was pulled down, and what is ſo called now ſerves for apartments for the governor of the hoſpital, and the ranger of the park.

MIDDLESEX takes its name from its ſituation between the kingdoms of the ancient Eaſt, Weſt, and South Saxons. Amongſt other places it contains

LONDON, the metropolis of Great Britain. This city is very ancient. It is mentioned by Tacitus as a place of conſiderable trade in the reign of Nero, and hence we may conclude it was founded about the time of Claudius, and the year of Chriſt 42.

The city of London has undergone great calamities of various kinds; but the two laſt were moſt remarkable; that is, the plague in 1665, which ſwept away 68,596 perſons; and the fire in 1666, which burnt down 13,200 dwelling-houſes.

London, in it's large ſenſe, comprehending Weſtminſter, Southwark, and part of Middleſex, is a city of ſurprizing extent, prodigious wealth, and moſt extenſive trade. It is delightfully and advantageouſly ſituated on the banks of the Thames, from which it riſes with a gradual aſcent. Nothing can be more beautiful than the ſurrounding country, conſiſting of rich corn fields, fertile meadows, large tracks of garden grounds, parks, and elegant villas, belonging to the nobility, and perſons of opulence.

The irregular form of this city renders it difficult to aſcertain its extent. The beſt idea that can be formed of it is from the number of the people, who are computed to be near a million, and from the multiplicity of edifices devoted to the ſervice of religion. To deſcribe the various ſtructures with which this city abounds would require a volume. The moſt remarkable, therefore, will only be attended to under this article.

London-bridge was firſt built of ſtone in the reign of Henry II. about the year 1163. From that time it

has undergone many alterations and improvements, particularly since the year 1756, when the houses were taken down, and the whole rendered more convenient and beautiful.

Westminster-bridge is reckoned one of the most complete and elegant structures of the kind in the known world. It is built entirely of stone, and extended over the river at a place where it is 1,223 feet broad, which is above 300 feet broader than at London-bridge. On each side is a fine ballustrade of stone, with places of shelter from the rain. This magnificent structure was begun in 1738, and finished in 1750.

Blackfriars-bridge, which, in magnificence or workmanship, is allowed to fall nothing short of that of Westminster, was begun in 1760, and finished in 1770. It is situated almost at an equal distance between those of Westminster and London, commands a view of the Thames from the latter to Whitehall, and discovers the majesty of St. Paul's in a very striking manner.

The cathedral of St. Paul is one of the most capacious, magnificent, and regular Protestant churches in the world. It is built of Portland stone, according to the Greek and Roman orders, in the form of a cross, after the model of St. Peter's at Rome, to which, in some respects, it is deemed superior. This edifice is the principal work of Sir Christopher Wren, and undoubtedly the only work of the same magnitude that ever was completed by one man. He lived to a great age, and finished the building 37 years after himself laid the first stone. The expence of rebuilding it after the fire of London was defrayed by a duty on coals, and is computed at a million sterling.

Westminster-abbey is a venerable pile of building in the Gothic taste. It was first built by Edward the Confessor. King Henry III. rebuilt it from the ground; and Henry VII. added a fine chapel to the east end of it. This is the depository of the deceased British kings and nobility, and here are also monuments erected to perpetuate the memories of poets, philosophers, heroes, and patriots.

The inside of the church of St. Stephen, Walbrook, is admired for its lightness and elegance. The steeples of St. Mary-le-Bow and St. Bride's are supposed to be the most complete in their kind of any in Europe. Few churches in or about London are without some beauty. Several of the new ones are built in elegant taste; and even some of the chapels have gracefulness and proportion to recommend them.

Westminster-hall, though on the outside it makes no very advantageous appearance, is a noble Gothic building, and deemed the largest room in the world, whose roof is not supported with pillars. Here are held the coronation feasts of our kings and queens: also the courts of chancery, king's bench, common pleas, and exchequer.

That beautiful column, called the Monument, erected at the charge of the city to perpetuate the memory of the dreadful fire of London in 1666, is worthy of notice. This monument was begun by Sir Christopher Wren in 1671, and finished by him in 1677.

The Royal Exchange is a large and noble edifice, calculated for the transaction of commercial business between the merchants of London and other places.

To these may be added the Tower of London, Bank of England, Guildhall, the College of Physicians in Warwick-lane, Christ's Hospital, the College of Heralds, New Treasury, the Admiralty-office, the Horse Guards at Whitehall, the Mansion-house, or the house of the lord mayor, the Custom-house, Excise-office, India-house, Inns of court, a great number of other public buildings, besides the magnificent edifices raised by the nobility and gentry.

In the center of the town, and upon the banks of the noblest river in Europe, was a chain of inelegant ruinous houses, known by the names of Durham-yard, the Savoy, and Somerset-house. The first being private property, engaged the notice of an ingenious architect, who opened the way to a piece of scenery

which no city in Europe can equal. On the site of Durham-yard was raised upon arches the pile of the Adelphi, celebrated for its enchanting prospect, the utility of its wharfs, and its subterraneous apartments, answering a variety of purposes of general benefit.

Contiguous to the Adelphi stands the Savoy, the property of government, hitherto a nuisance; and adjoining to the Savoy, towards the Temple, stood Somerset-house, where, being the property of government also, a new pile of buildings for public offices has been erected; and here, in a very magnificent edifice, are elegant apartments appointed for the use of the Royal Society, the Royal Academy of Painting and Sculpture, and the Society of Antiquaries.

Among the list of improvements worthy notice may be included the Six Clerks-Office in Chancery-lane; and that very substantial building in the Old Bailey, which does honour to a people celebrated for their cleanliness and humanity. Here the unfortunate debtor will no longer be annoyed by the dreadful rattle of chains, and by the more horrid sounds issuing from the lips of those wretched beings who set defiance to all laws, human and divine; and here also the offender, whose crime is not capital, may enjoy a free open air.

In the metropolis, and its environs, are many excellent charitable foundations; particularly St. Bartholomew's Hospital near Smithfield; the Small-pox Hospital in Coldbath-fields, and another near Battle-bridge-Wells; the Lying-in Hospital in Brownlow-street, Long-acre; another in the City Road; and a third near Westminster-bridge; St. Thomas's and Guy's hospitals in Southwark; St. George's and the Lock, near Hyde-Park-corner; the Middlesex Hospital in Tottenham-Court-Road; the London Hospital at Mile-end; the Magdalen, for the reformation of prostitutes, and the Asylum, for the reception of female orphans, in St. George's Fields. To these must be added, Bedlam, or Bethlem Hospital, for lunatics, in Lower Moorfields; and St. Luke's, lately in Upper Moorfields, but now erected upon a large and extensive plan in Old-street Road. The Foundling Hospital merits equal notice, as its plans and erections are equally laudable and liberal.

The new buildings in the liberty of Westminster have, within these few years, increased to a prodigious degree. Among them are several magnificent squares, as those of Hanover, Berkeley, Grosvenor, Cavendish, Portman, and Manchester. To the east of this last is Portland Place, the buildings in which are deemed superior in grandeur to any in Europe. Besides the above squares there are St. James's, Soho, Leicester, Golden, Bloomsbury, and Bedford; to which may be added the magnificent square called Lincoln's-Inn-Fields, and several others of less note, both in the city and suburbs.

The number of parishes in London are, 97 within the walls, 16 without, 19 in the out-parishes of Middlesex, and 11 in the city and liberties of Westminster. The number of meeting-houses, for Protestant dissenters of all denominations, is very great; besides which there are three Jews Synagogues. The public schools are, that of St. Paul; Merchant-Taylors school in Suffolk-lane, near Cannon-street; the Charter-house; the Royal school in Westminster; and St. Martin's school near the King's Mews.

The very elegant method of paving and enlightening the streets is felt in the most sensible manner by all ranks and degrees of people. The roads are continued for several miles around upon the same model, and, exclusive of lamps regularly placed on each side, at short distances, are rendered more secure by watchmen stationed within call of each other. Nothing can appear more brilliant than the lights when viewed at a distance, especially when the roads run across; and even the principal streets, such as Pall-Mall, New-Bond street, Oxford street, &c. convey an idea of elegance and magnificence.

The trading part of the city of London is divided into a number of companies. Of these there are 12 prin-

principal; the mercers, grocers, drapers, fishmongers, goldsmiths, stationers, merchant-tailors, haberdashers, falsters, ironmongers, vintners and clothworkers. The city magistrates are the lord-mayor, 26 aldermen, 236 common-councilmen, a recorder, two sheriffs, a chamberlain, a common-serjeant, and town-clerk.

The city and liberties of Westminster are governed by a high-steward, a head-bailiff, a high-constable and 14 burgessees.

Learned bodies of men, besides the clergy, are, the Royal Society, the College of Physicians, and the Society of Antiquarians. The finest repository of rarities is Sir Hans Sloane's Museum, kept in Great Russell-street, Bloomsbury.

Essex, which is situated to the east of Middlesex, is extremely fertile, and abounds in cattle, saffron, &c.

Colchester, the chief town of the county, is a large populous place, on the river Coln, which passes thro' it, and is made navigable for small craft up to the Hithe, a long street, which may be called the Wapping of Colchester, where there is a convenient quay; and at Vennoe, within three miles of it, is a good custom-house. This, and all the towns round it, are noted for making baize, of which great quantities are exported. Colchester is also noted for excellent oysters.

Chelmsford stands in a beautiful plain, having the little river Chelmer running through it, over which there is a bridge. It is a large populous town, almost in the center of the county. Its situation renders it the most frequented; and it is called the shire town.

Harwich, a sea port town, contains one of the finest harbours in Europe. Here is also a good dock yard, in which many ships are built.

HERTFORDSHIRE, or Hartfordshire, which received its name from the great number of harts with which it formerly abounded, is situated westward of Essex. It is a county particularly fertile in corn and wood.

Hertford is the shire town, though inferior either to Ware or St. Alban's in opulence. It is pleasantly situated on the river Lea, and built in the form of a Roman Y. It has two churches, All Saints and St. Andrew's.

BEDFORDSHIRE, situated north west of Hertfordshire, is fruitful in corn and pasture.

Bedford, the county town, is a clean, well-built, populous place. Here are five churches, of which the chief, and indeed the principal ornament of the town, is St. Paul's, which had once a college of prebendaries. The priory, now belonging to the earl of Ashburnham, was founded before the Norman conquest, for secular canons. The buildings of this town are pretty good, and the streets broad. The north and south parts are joined by a stone bridge over the Ouse. A famous castle here was demolished in the reign of Henry VIII. and the site is now a bowling-green, reckoned one of the finest in England.

BUCKINGHAMSHIRE, south west of Bedfordshire, is a pleasant fruitful county, and abounds particularly in physical plants.

Buckingham, the county town, stands in a low ground, encompassed on all sides, but the north, with the river Ouse. The castle, now in ruins, was built in the middle of it, and divides it into two parts. In the north part stands the town hall, a very handsome convenient structure. The town was, for many years, a staple for wool, and several of its wool halls are yet standing; but that trade is now lost. It is populous, and has three stone bridges over the Ouse. Its church, which is in the west part of the town, is very large. The lace manufacture is the principal business here, as well as in other parts of the county. There is a road from this town leading to the Marquis of Buckingham's (late Earl Temple's) celebrated seat at Stowe. It runs in a straight line, about two miles up to the Corinthian arch; which, however, sometimes disappears, owing to the rising and falling of the ground. The temple, pavilions, pyramids, obelisks, monuments, statues, busts, &c. which adorn the elegant villa at

Stowe, are all highly finished; and the many inscriptions are designed for the information and instruction of the beholder.

OXFORDSHIRE, situated to the west of Buckinghamshire, is a pleasant, healthful, and fertile county.

The city of Oxford stands on the conflux of the Charwell and Isis. It enjoys a sweet air, in a plentiful country, on a fine plain, and has every way a delightful prospect. The private buildings are neat, the public ones sumptuous; and the river navigable for barges. But that which gives it a consequence above all other places in this kingdom, is the oldest and most noble university in Europe. It is of so great antiquity as to have been an university between eight or nine hundred years. The constitution is so regular, the endowments so plentiful, the mansions so convenient for study, and every thing so agreeable to the education of youth, and the accomplishment of students, that it is no wonder such numbers of learned men are daily sent abroad for the service of the church and state. It contains 20 colleges; five halls; a stately pile, called the schools, wherein exercises for the several degrees are performed; the theatre, the most magnificent building of the kind in the world; the Clarendon printing-house, which likewise surpasses every thing of a similar nature in the universe; the museum, containing a chemical laboratory; a repository of natural and artificial curiosities and antiquities; a library; a physic garden, &c. It is governed by a chancellor, vice-chancellor, &c.

GLOUCESTERSHIRE, situated to the westward of Oxfordshire, is tolerably pleasant, but indifferently fertile.

Gloucester is a well built, clean, healthy city, secured by the river on one side, a branch of which brings up vessels of a considerable burthen to its walls. It has a beautiful cathedral, five churches, and is well provided with hospitals. The cathedral is an antient but magnificent fabric, and has a tower, which is one of the neatest and most curious pieces of architecture in England, and a whispering place, as in the cupola of St. Paul's. Here is an elegant stone bridge over the river, with a key, wharf, and custom-house. Abundance of crosses, and statues of the kings of England, are dispersed in different parts of the city, and large remains of monasteries. Its town-hall, for the assize, is called the Booth-hall. Under the bridge is a curious machine, which raises water to serve the town; though it is also supplied from Robin Hood's Well, which is a mile or two out of the city. Cheltenham is noted for its mineral waters, for which it has been much frequented, and is now more so, having obtained the sanction of a visit from their majesties, and a part of the royal family.

MONMOUTHSHIRE, which was formerly part of Wales, is the most western English county towards South Wales.

Monmouth, 12 miles from Hereford, gives name to the county, and has its own from the mouth of the river Minway, at which it is situated. It stands pleasantly between that river and the Wye, over each of which it has a bridge. It has been a place of note ever since the conquest; for the castle, now in ruins, was a stately edifice at that time. There are still remaining such parts of its fortifications as shew that it was formerly very strong. The town is, in a manner, surrounded by water, there being another river, the Trothy, over which it has also a bridge. It has a stately church, the east end of which is curiously built. The place carries on a considerable traffic with Bristol by means of the Wye.

HEREFORDSHIRE, north of Monmouthshire, is one of the most fertile counties in England, and particularly celebrated for its cyder.

Hereford, the only city in this county, has a good stone bridge of eight arches over the Wye, and is encompassed with rivers on all sides but the west. Its name signifies the ford of an army, it having been for several hundred years the head quarters of the Saxons before

fore the conquest, and of the English afterwards, who were stationed here to keep the Welsh in awe. Before the civil wars it had six, but has now only four churches. The cathedral is a magnificent structure, and contains monuments of its antient prelates. The bishop's castle, the close with the dignitaries houses, and the college of the vicars and choristers, are pleasantly situated. It is a large, but not very populous city; the houses old and mean, and the streets dirty, by reason of its low situation.

WORCESTERSHIRE, north-east of Herefordshire, is a well watered and very fruitful county.

Worcester, on the Severn, over which it has a fine stone bridge, is the capital. The remarkable battle in 1651, when Charles II. was defeated by Cromwell, was fought near the south gate of the city, where bones of the slain are frequently dug up. The chief manufactures of the place are broad cloth, gloves, and porcelaine, which is a composition of a middle nature, between fine earth and glass. The public buildings make a grand appearance, especially the guildhall, and the workhouse. It had formerly a castle, and walls with three gates, and five watch towers; all long since destroyed. The cathedral, which is exactly the model of that of Brussels, is a large edifice, but not very elegant, except the choir of the chapel, on the south side, which is of curious workmanship. A handsome library belongs to the cathedral, supported by one single pillar in the middle. Here are the monuments of king John; prince Arthur, brother to Henry VIII. the countess of Salisbury; and other illustrious persons. Besides the cathedral, there are nine parish churches. The streets are broad and well paved; the Foregate-street is regular and beautiful. The hospitals deserve notice, especially that noble one erected by Robert Berkley, of Spetchley, who laid out 2000l. in the building; and 4000l. in endowing it for 12 poor men. Besides this, there are six or seven others. The Severn, though generally rapid elsewhere, glides by Worcester very gently. Here is a good water-house and quay.

WARWICKSHIRE, to the east of Worcestershire, is very fertile, and particularly famous for its iron works.

Coventry is united with Litchfield in Staffordshire, as a bishopric. There are many traditional stories relating to this city, particularly that of lady Godiva, who, to obtain and perpetuate some privileges, rode naked through the streets; and an annual procession is still made through the town in commemoration of it. This city is large and populous, but the buildings are old; and some of them, which are built of timber, project out so much, that in the narrow streets the tops of the opposite houses almost touch. The chief churches are St. Michael's and Trinity. The Protestant dissenters are a considerable body here. The town-house is worth seeing, the windows being of painted glass, representing some of the old kings, &c. who have been benefactors to this city. Its chief manufactures are tammies, and the weaving of ribbons.

Warwick, on the Avon, the county town, stands on a situation remarkably rocky. It is of great antiquity, and may be approached by four ways, answering to the points of the compass, and cut through rocks. These lead to four streets, which meet in the center of the town. The walls and cellars are made in the rock. It is supplied with water by pipes from springs half a mile off, and has a noble stone bridge of 12 arches over the Avon. Here is a castle, the principal ornament of the place, strong both by art and nature. The rock on which it stands is 40 feet from the river; but on the north side it is even with the town. From its terrace, which is above 50 feet perpendicular above the Avon, there is a prospect of the river, and a beautiful country beyond it. The apartments of the castle are well contrived, and many of them adorned with original pictures by Van Dyke. It was built originally by William the Conqueror. Near the town is Guy's Cliff, a high perpendicular rock, where Guy, earl of War-

wick, is said to have lived a hermit, after his defeating the Danish giant Colbrand. His sword and other accoutrements are still shewn in the castle.

Birmingham is a very large populous town, the upper part of which stands dry on the side of a hill, but the lower is watery, and inhabited by the meaner sort of people. They are employed here in the iron works, in which they are such ingenious artificers, that their performances, in the small wares of iron and steel, are admired both at home and abroad. It is much improved of late years, both in public and private buildings. Near this town is a seat belonging to Sir Lister Holt, bart. but converted into public gardens, with an organ and other music, in imitation of Vauxhall, which is the name it now goes by.

NORTHAMPTONSHIRE, east of Warwickshire, has less waste ground than any other county, and consequently is exceeding rich and fertile.

Northampton stands upon the Nen, over which it has two bridges. The buildings were handsome, and the town large (having seven parish churches within the walls, and two without) when it was reduced to ashes by a dreadful fire in 1675. Liberal contributions from all parts of the kingdom restored it in a great measure to its original size; and for neatness, beauty, and situation, few towns equal it. It has four churches, of which the great one, viz. Allhallows, is a handsome edifice, with a stately portico of 12 lofty Ionic columns, and a statue of king Charles II. on the balustrade. It stands near the center of the town, and at the meeting of four spacious streets. The sessions and assize house is a very beautiful building of the Corinthian order. The market place is one of the finest in Europe. The horse market is thought to exceed any other of the kind in England. Its most considerable manufacture is shoes, of which great numbers are exported; the next to that stockings. A county hospital is built here after the manner of the infirmaries of London, Bristol, Bath, &c. and the river Nen has lately been made navigable up to the town.

HUNTINGDONSHIRE, to the east of Northamptonshire, is a great corn and pasture county, and abounds in fish and wild fowl.

Huntingdon, near the Ouse, over which it has a stone bridge, is the constant place for the assize, as well as the county goal, and is a populous trading town, consisting chiefly of one large street, well-built, with a handsome market-place, and a good grammar school. More beautiful meadows are not to be seen any where than on the banks of the river, which, in the summer, are covered with numerous herds of cattle, and flocks of sheep. The bridge, or rather bridges, with the causeway, are ornaments, as well as benefits to the town.

CAMBRIDGESHIRE, including the Isle of Ely, is situated to the west of Suffolk, and is in general very fertile.

Cambridge is so called from its situation on the banks of the Cam, which forms several islands on the west side, and divides the town into two parts, which are joined by a large stone bridge. It is very ancient, being well known in the time of the Romans by the name of Camboritum. William the Conqueror built a castle here, of which the gate-house is still standing, and used for the county goal. The town is divided into 10 wards, has 14 parish churches, contains upwards of 1200 houses, for the most part irregularly built, and about 6000 inhabitants.

This university contains 12 colleges and four halls, is a corporation of itself, and governed by a chancellor, high-steward, vice-chancellor, &c.

Stourbridge, a large spot of ground near Cambridge, is famous for one of the greatest annual fairs in England. The chief articles sold here consist of woollen cloth, hops, iron, wool, leather, and cheese.

Ely, an ancient city, situated in the fenny country, called the Isle of Ely, and being surrounded by the Ouse and other streams, is unhealthy, though it stands on a rising ground. It was made an episcopal see by

Henry

Henry I. The cathedral and the bishop's palace are its chief ornaments: the former has a remarkable dome and lanthorn.

Newmarket, a handsome, well built town, consisting of one long street, the north side of which is in Suffolk, is famous for horse-races, and much frequented by persons of all ranks. The town is not modern, as the name imports; for it was of note in Edward III's time; but being burnt down in 1683, was afterwards rebuilt. Besides the parish church of St. Mary's, there is also a small church, All-Saints, which is, properly speaking, only a chapel of ease to Wood-Ditton, in Cambridgeshire. It is a healthy place, and on a spacious heath, which is the finest course in England. Here are several very wide, steep, and long ditches, which were cut by the East Angles, to keep out the Mercians; one of which, being a stupendous work, much superior to the rest, has obtained the name of the Devil's Ditch; which runs many miles over the heath.

SUFFOLK, a maritime county, situated west of the German Ocean, has but an indifferent soil, but is well watered.

Ipswich was once in a flourishing state, as appears from the great number of ships that belonged to it, when its harbour was more commodious; and it had 21 churches, of which now only 12 remain. The tide rises here 12, and sometimes 14 feet. The town is populous, about a mile long, and something more in breadth, forming a sort of half moon on the banks of the river, over which it has a good bridge of stone. It is a corporation; and its chief manufactures are linen and woollen. Here are a convenient quay and custom-house.

NORFOLK, a maritime county, to the north of Suffolk, is exceedingly fruitful.

Norwich is a large city, near the conflux of the rivers Venfder and Yare. It stands on the side of a hill, and is near two miles in length, and one in breadth. The town is irregular; though the buildings, both public and private, are neat and handsome. The manufactures, for the greatest part, are crapes and stuffs, of which vast quantities are sent from Yarmouth (a neighbouring sea port) to Holland, Germany, Sweden, and other parts in the Baltic. It has 12 gates, and six bridges over the Yare; 36 churches, besides the cathedral, and chapels and meeting-houses of all denominations. The roof of the cathedral, a large, venerable, and handsome structure, is adorned with the history of the bible. The choir is large and spacious. Here are two churches for the Dutch and French Flemings, who enjoy singular privileges.

Yarmouth is a sea port of great strength, both from art and nature. It is esteemed the key of this coast; but though the harbour is a fine one, it is dangerous in windy weather. This place is noted for its herrings.

LINCOLNSHIRE is a large plentiful maritime county, situated to the west of the German Ocean, and divided into three parts, viz. Holland, Kesteven, and Lindsey. The principal place in the first is

Boston, on the Witham, which is navigable to Lincoln. This town was formerly made a staple for wool, and the merchants of the Hans Towns fixed their guild here. It is a pleasant, well built town, and has a good foreign and inland trade. Its church is reckoned the largest parish church without cross ayles in all the world. Its tower, or steeple, is famous for its height and workmanship. It has a beautiful octagon lanthorn on the top, which is seen near 40 miles every way; but especially on the sea, as far as the entrance of the dangerous channels called Lynn-deeps and Boston-deeps; so that it is the guide of mariners, as well as the wonder of travellers, and is a magnificent specimen of a fine Gothic taste. The town has a commodious haven, and is plentifully supplied with fresh water by pipes from a pond, enclosed in the great common called the West Penn.

The principal place of Kesteven is Stamford, on the Welland, which is navigable for barges. The

town is finely situated on the declivity of a hill, has a stone bridge of five arches, a town hall, six parish churches, and a considerable trade in malt, coals, and free-stone.

Grantham, an ancient town on the river Witham, has several good inns of great resort. It is well built. Here is a fine large church, with a handsome spire, which, by a deception of the sight, seems to stand awry. A good free-school was built and endowed here by Bishop Fox, where Sir Isaac Newton received his first education.

Lindsey division contains

Lincoln, built on the side of a hill, at the bottom of which runs the river Witham in three small channels, over which are several bridges. The cathedral was esteemed the glory of Lincoln; for its magnificence and elevation is such, that the monks concluded it would chagrin the devil to look at it, and thence an envious look, by a proverbial expression, is compared to the devil looking over Lincoln. The city formerly abounded with monasteries and churches. In the center of the old castle, which was built by the Romans, and repaired by the Saxons, is a modern structure, where the assizes are held. The city is a county of itself, and has extensive power and privileges. On the down of Lincoln is sometimes seen that rare bird called the Bustard. The country hereabout is very rich and agreeable; the noble track of Lincoln Heath extending, like Salisbury Plain, above 50 miles. The cathedral was successfully brought to perfection by several of its bishops. Here is the finest and largest bell in England, called Tom of Lincoln, near five ton weight, and near 23 feet in compass.

RUTLANDSHIRE, to the south west of Lincolnshire, is the smallest county in England, but contains more parks than any other, and is as fertile as pleasant.

Oakham, the shire town for the assize, is situate in the little but rich vale of Catmos, and famous for its market, fairs, castle, hospitals, and free school. This town is particularly remarkable for an ancient custom still kept up, viz. that every peer of the realm, the first time he comes through this town, shall give a horse-shoe to nail upon the castle-gate; and if he refuses, the bailiff of the manor has power to stop his coach, and take the shoe from one of his horses. This is now called the order of the horse-shoe; and it is common for the donor to have a large one made with his name stamped on it, and often gilt. One over the judges seat, in the assize hall, is of curious workmanship.

LEICESTERSHIRE, situated to the west of Rutlandshire, is a plentiful county.

Leicester, the chief town, is the largest, best built, and most populous in the shire: it has six parishes, and five churches. The freemen are exempt from toll in all markets in England. There is an exquisite piece of workmanship in the high street, in form of Our Saviour's cross. The hospital, built by Henry Plantagenet, duke of Lancaster, is supported by some revenues of the duchy of Lancaster, so as to be capable of maintaining an hundred aged persons decently. It was rebuilt in 1776, at his majesty's expence. There is another near the abbey for six widows. The inhabitants have greatly improved in their manufacture of stockings wove in frames, and return in that article a large sum annually. Before the castle was dismantled it was a noble work. Its hall and kitchen still remain entire; and the former is so lofty and spacious, that it is made a court of justice at the assizes. One of the gateways of this place has an arch of curious workmanship; and in the tower, over it, is kept the magazine for the county militia. St. Margaret's church is a noble and elegant structure.

NOTTINGHAMSHIRE, to the north of Leicestershire, is fruitful towards the eastward part, but unfertile westward.

Nottingham stands pleasantly on the ascent of a rock overlooking the river Trent, which runs parallel with it about a mile to the south, and has been made navigable

gable. It has three churches; a grand town-house built on piazzas; a fine spacious market-place, well supplied; a goal for the town and county; a manufactory for weaving frame stockings; and likewise for glass and earthen ware. The rock on which the town stands is so remarkably soft, as to be capable of being cut out into steps, and other purposes, with great ease. The cellars are very good for keeping beer; and the county abounding in barley, the malt and beer-trade are greatly followed. Here is a house built on the side of a hill, where one enters at the garret, and descends to the cellar, which is at the top of the house. As the castle has oftener been the residence of our monarchs than any place so far from London, the town has more gentlemen's houses than any town of the size in Britain. In the duke of Newcastle's park there is a ledge of perpendicular rocks hewn into a church, houses, chambers, dove-houses, &c.

DERBYSHIRE, to the west of Nottinghamshire, is barren on its surface, owing to the great number of hills, mountains, &c. but rich within the bowels of those eminences. The peak, a mountainous part of this county, is much visited on account of some rarities, called the Wonders of the peak; amongst which is the fine seat of the duke of Devonshire, at Chatsworth.

Derby, the county town, so called from having been a park or shelter for deer, stands on the west side of the river Derwent, over which it has a neat stone bridge of five arches. The south side is watered by a little rivulet, called Mertin-brook, which has nine bridges over it. The most remarkable church in Derby is All-Saints, or Allhallows, having a beautiful Gothic square tower, 60 yards high, with 4 pinnacles. This town depends chiefly on a retail trade, also in buying and selling corn, in making malt, and brewing ale, of both which great quantities are sent to London.

YORKSHIRE, the largest county in the kingdom, contains a variety of soils, and is divided into three Ridings, viz. west, east, and north, being so distinguished on account of their situations with respect to the city of York.

York is situated on the river Ouse, and its chief magistrate has the title of Lord Mayor. The cathedral is built in the Gothic taste. The windows are adorned with glass exquisitely painted with scripture history. The nave of this church is four feet and half wider, and 11 feet higher, than that of St. Paul's. The ascent from it, through the choir to the altar, is by six steps. The entrance of the middle nave of the church, at the west door, is under the largest Gothic arch in Europe, which binds and supports the two towers. At the south end of the cross isle is a circular window, called the marigold window, from its glass being stained of that colour; and a large one at the north end, consisting of five lights, reaching almost from bottom to top. The painting represents embroidery.

The city belongs to neither of the Ridings, but enjoys its own liberty, and a jurisdiction over 36 villages and hamlets in the neighbourhood, on the west side of the Ouse. This liberty is called the Ainstey, or county, of the city of York.

York is pleasantly situated, and divided into four wards, containing 28 parishes, and walled, but not fortified with artillery. The river Ouse, from the north, passes through it, and divides it into two parts, joined together by a stone bridge of five arches, of which the middlemost is reckoned, for height, breadth, and architecture, to be equal to the Rialto at Venice, though not to that at Blenheim. The great council-chamber, the exchequer, the sheriff's court, and the two city prisons, are kept upon this bridge. The river brings large vessels to the quay, though at 60 miles distance from the ocean. It has four large well built gates, and five posterns. The other most remarkable structures are the guildhall; the statue of king Edgar, who re-built the city, and St. Anthony's-hall. The market-house, in the street called the Pavement, is a curious piece of

architecture, supported by 12 pillars of the Tuscan order; and there is another still larger in a square, called Thursday market. In this city are 17 churches.

Hull, or Kingston upon Hull, has two churches, one called Trinity, or High Church, the other St. Mary's, or Low Church. The former is a spacious beautiful building, the pillars of which are remarkably small; and had, before the reformation, 12 chantries, in one of which is now a neat library. Here are several meeting-houses, an exchange, a custom house, and an engine for making salt-water fresh. Here is a free-school, with an hall over it, belonging to the merchants, who have founded an hospital, called Trinity-house, in which are maintained many distressed seamen and their widows. The town carries on a great trade in sail making; is large, close built, and populous. The rigid discipline beggars meet with here makes Hull tremendous to them. All foreign poor are whipped out, and the poor of the town are set to work. They have a cantilany among them, viz. "From Hell, Hull, and Halifax, good Lord deliver us."

Scarborough is a large town, built in the form of a crescent, on the side of a steep hill. It has a commodious quay, but little trade. The pier is maintained by a duty upon coals; and the mariners have erected an hospital for widows and poor seamen, which is maintained by a rate on vessels, and deductions out of seamen's wages. From the middle of November herrings are taken here in great numbers. Besides herrings, they catch ling, cod-fish, haddock, and other fish in great plenty; and sometimes whiting and mackerel. The spaw-well is at the foot of an exceeding high cliff, rising perpendicular out of the earth like a boiling pot, near the level of high-water mark in spring tides, with which it is often over-flowed. It is never dry, and in an hour yields 24 gallons of water, which is purgative and diuretic. Here is good accommodation, besides assemblies and public balls. The resort of company to this place is prodigious.

DURHAM BISHOPRIC, situated to the north of Yorkshire, is (though not a fertile county) very rich in coals.

Durham, situated on a hill, has a cathedral, which is an old but magnificent pile. Besides the cathedral, here are six parish churches. Southward of the cathedral is the college, a spacious court, the whole of which has been rebuilt, or much repaired, since the restoration. Above the college-gate is the exchequer; and at the west the guest-hall, for the entertainment of strangers. On the north side of the college school is a house for the master; and between the church-yard and castle an open area, called the Palace Green; to the west of which is the shire-hall, where the assizes and sessions are held for the county; and near it a library. On the east is an hospital, built and endowed by Bishop Cosin. On the north side is a castle, now the bishop's palace, built by William the Conqueror, the outer gate-house of which is at present the county goal. The toll-booth, near St. Nicholas's church, and the cross conduit, in the market place, with the two bridges over the Were, are the other principal public buildings.

NORTHUMBERLAND, the most northern county of England towards Scotland, is fertile towards the sea, and has great quantities of sheep fed in the mountainous parts; but its peculiar wealth is pit coal.

Newcastle is an ancient, large, disagreeable, and dirty town, but exceedingly populous, and very rich. It is situated at the end of the ancient Pilgrims Wall, on the river Tyne, over which it has a fine bridge. Hence it is called Newcastle upon Tyne. The commerce carried on in coals and salmon is amazing, and has rendered it, in a great measure, the emporium of the north. It may be said to be situated both in Northumberland and the bishopric of Durham; though that part of it which is in the latter is called Gateside, and is like Southwark to London, the liberties coming no farther than the great iron gate upon the bridge, which has the arms of the bishop of Durham carved on the south, and those

of Newcastle on the north side. The situation of the town is very uneven and unpleasant, especially that part which is most considerable for business, and which lies upon the river; for it is built on the declivity of a steep hill, which makes the streets difficult and uneasy. It is also crowded with houses, especially in that part of the town best situated for trade. The castle, though old and ruinous, overlooks the whole town. The exchange is a noble and magnificent building, situated in the only broad place of that part of the town, and contiguous both to the river and the custom-house, but too much pent up for want of room. Between the town-wall and the river is a spacious place, firmly wharfed up with a facing of free-stone, and makes a very fine quay. Besides the commerce abovementioned, here are some glass-houses, iron manufactories, &c. Here is an hospital, built by subscription, several churches and chapels, besides St. Nicholas's church, which is a curious fabric, an exchange, mansion-house, public library, &c.

Berwick upon Tweed is a town fortified in the modern way, but is much contracted from its antient extent; the old castle and works now lying at some distance beyond the present ramparts. Abundance of wool is exported from this town; also eggs, which are collected through the country, to a prodigious annual amount. It was always, before the Union, a bone of contention between the two nations. Both had an eye upon it, and therefore it was well fortified; but now the works are greatly impaired. It is a county and town of itself; and though situated on the north side of the Tweed, is included in Northumberland. It has handsome streets, a fine parish church, a town-house, an exchange, and a beautiful bridge of 16 arches over the Tweed, leading to Tweed's Mouth, a suburb where is another large church; and betwixt the town wall and its once stately castle is a handsome suburb, called Castle-gate. Here is a noble salmon fishery, esteemed equal to any in England, and also a considerable manufacture of fine stockings.

Alnwick is a populous, well built town. It has three gates, which are almost entire; and an old stately Gothic castle, the seat of the dukes of Northumberland.

CUMBERLAND, situated south-west of Northumberland, has a wholesome air, but is not very fertile.

Carlisle, situated at the conflux of the rivers Eden, Petterill and Cauda, is a sea-port, but without ships, merchants, or trade, and has but two parish churches, St. Cuthbert's and St. Mary's. The choir of the cathedral is an exact piece of architecture. The roof is elegantly vaulted with wood, and embellished with the arms of France and England; the Percy's, Lucy's, Warren's, &c. This town is the key of England on the west sea, as Berwick upon Tweed is on the east sea. It has a bridge over the Eden, which is but a little way from Scotland, the south part of which indents into England, at least 50 miles farther than it does at Berwick.

Whitehaven is so called from the white cliffs that are near it, and shelter the harbour from tempests. It is a populous rich town, chiefly obliged to the Lowther family for its improvement, who were at a vast expence to make the harbour more commodious, and to beautify the town, the trade of which chiefly consists of salt and coal.

WESTMORELAND, situated to the south-east of Cumberland, has a healthy but sharp air, is very mountainous, and consequently includes many barren tracks.

Appleby, the county town, is neither rich or beautiful; yet the situation of it, in the midst of pleasant fields, and on the banks of the river Eden, which almost encompasses it, is very agreeable. Its name is a corruption of the Aballaba in the Notitia; and it was the station of the Mauri Aureliani, a band of Roman soldiers so called, because they were sent hither by the Emperor Aurelian. Here also is an hospital for a governess and twelve other widows, called the mother and twelve sisters.

Kendal, 16 miles from Appleby, called also Kirkby Kandle, that is, a church by the dale upon the river Can, over which it has two bridges of stone and one of wood, and a harbour for boats. It is much superior to Appleby in trade, buildings, number and wealth of the inhabitants, and is the largest town in the county.

Lonsdale, or Kirby Lonsdale, is a large well built town, seated on the river Lune. It has a handsome stone bridge, with a stately church and a fine churchyard, from which and from the banks of the river is a fine prospect of the mountains at a great distance, and of the beautiful course of the river Lune, in a valley far beneath. This town has a good trade in cloth.

LANCASHIRE, a maritime county, situated to the eastward of the Irish Sea, is famous for its manufactures, for the fertility of the level parts, and the treasures contained within the bowels of the mountainous districts.

The navigation made by the Duke of Bridgewater, in this county, is highly worthy of notice. It bears vessels of 60 tons burthen, and is carried over two rivers, the Mersey and the Irwell. The adit which was necessary to be made, in order to drain the water from the coal mines, is rendered navigable for boats of six or seven tons burthen, and forms a kind of subterraneous river, which runs about a mile and a half under ground, and communicates with the canal. This part leads to the head of the mines, is arched over with brick, and is just wide enough for the passage of the boat. At the mouth of it are two folding doors, which are closed as soon as you enter, and you then proceed by candle-light, which casts a livid gloom, serving only to make darkness visible.

But this dismal gloom is rendered still more awful by the solemn echo of this subterraneous water, which returns various and discordant sounds. One while you are struck with the grating noise of engines, which by a curious contrivance let down the coals into the boats: then again you hear the shock of an explosion, occasioned by blowing up the hard rock, which will not yield to any other force than that of gun-powder: the next minute your ears are saluted by the songs of merriment from either sex, who thus beguile their labours in the mine.

You have no sooner reached the head of the works than a new scene offers to your view. There you behold man and woman almost in the primitive state of nature, toiling in different capacities, by the glimmering of a dim taper. Some digging coal out of the bowels of the earth; some again loading it in little waggons made for the purpose; and others drawing these waggons to the boats.

To perfect this canal without impeding the public roads, bridges are built over it, and where the earth has been raised to preserve the level, arches are formed under it; but what principally strikes every beholder is a work raised near Barton-bridge, to convey the canal over the Mersey. This is done by means of three stone arches, so spacious and lofty, as to admit vessels sailing through them; and indeed nothing can be more singular and pleasing, than to observe large vessels in full sail under the aqueduct, and at the same time the duke's vessels sailing over all, near fifty feet above the navigable river.

Lancaster, the shire town, has its name from the river Lune, on the side of which it is situated near its mouth, and gives name to the whole county. Here are frequently found the coins of Roman emperors, especially where the Benedictine Friars had a cloyster, which they say was the area of an antient city burnt to the ground in 1322 by the Scots. After this conflagration they built nearer the river, by a green hill, upon which stands a castle, and on the top of it a handsome church. At the bottom there is a fine bridge over the Lune; and on the steepest part of it hangs a piece of very antient Roman-wall, now called Wery-wall. In digging a cellar several cups were found

that had been used in sacrifices. It was formerly more remarkable for agriculture than commerce; but is much improved in the latter, being, at present, a populous, thriving corporation, with a tolerable harbour and custom-house. The county assizes are held in the castle, which is one of the finest monuments of antiquity in this kingdom.

Liverpool is a neat populous town, and the most flourishing sea-port in these parts. The inhabitants drive an incredible trade, with very large stocks, to all the northern and southern parts of the world. They import almost all kinds of foreign goods, have a large inland trade, and share in that to Ireland and Wales, with Bristol. It is also the most convenient and most frequented passage to Ireland, standing at the mouth of the Mersey river, or Liverpool-water, as the sailors call it. The harbour is defended on the south side by a castle, and on the west by a tower, on the Mersey. It has four churches, many spacious clean streets, an elegant town house, an admirable wet dock, with iron flood gates, a stately custom-house, a neat play-house, &c.

Manchester, near the conflux of the Irk and Irwell, is a place of great trade, handsome, well built, and populous, and has a spacious market place, a college, an exchange, &c. The fustian manufacture, called Manchester cottons, has been much improved by some late inventions of dying and printing. The greatest variety of other stuffs, known by the name of Manchester goods, as ticking, tapes, filleting and linen cloth, not only enrich the town, but render the people industrious. The collegiate church is very large and beautiful, with a choir remarkable for its curious carved work, and a famous clock that shews the age of the moon. As the Hague, in Holland, is deservedly called the most magnificent village in Europe, so Manchester may with equal propriety be said to be the greatest village in England; the highest magistrate being only a constable or headborough; though it is more populous than York, or many other cities in England.

Warrington, a large town on the river Mersey, has a market well supplied with corn, cattle, and fish. Here is an academy founded upon a noble and extensive plan for educating youth in the learned professions. In this town, and the neighbouring villages, sail-cloth is made for the royal navy. Here are also copper works, sugar-houses, and glass-houses, which furnish the industrious with the means of obtaining a comfortable subsistence. On the banks of the Mersey, which, by means of weirs and locks, is made navigable to Manchester, are paper-mills, gun powder-mills, oil-mills, iron forges and slitting-mills.

Preston is a fine town, seated on the river Ribble. Though it has no manufacture, it has a court of chancery and other offices of justice, for the county palatine of Lancaster. From the gentry many miles round resorting here in winter, and having assemblies, balls, &c. it is vulgarly called Proud Preston. It has a large market-place. On the neighbouring common are frequent horse races. Near it the duke of Hamilton, who came to rescue Charles I. from imprisonment, was defeated in 1648; as were also the English rebels, under general Hoster, in 1715.

Wigan is inhabited by shop-keepers of almost all kinds, has a manufacture of coverlets, rugs and blankets, and is governed by a mayor, a recorder, aldermen, &c.

Near this town is a well, which at first sight does not appear to be a spring, but rather rain-water. There is nothing about it that seems extraordinary; but upon emptying it there presently breaks out a sulphurous vapour, which causes the water to bubble up as if it boiled. A candle being put to it, it presently takes fire and burns like brandy. The flame in a calm season will continue a whole day, by the heat of which you may boil meat, eggs, &c.

CHESHIRE, to the south of Lancashire, has a serene air, and good soil, and is famous for its cheese.

Chester, or, as it is commonly called, West Chester, is a large well built city, full of wealthy inhabitants, who, by its neighbourhood to the Severn, and to Ireland, drive a considerable trade; as may be seen by the great fairs held here every year; to which abundance of tradesmen and merchants come from all parts, but particularly from Bristol and Dublin. The houses are, generally speaking, distinguished from all the buildings in Britain. They are, for the most part, of timber, very large and spacious, but are built with galleries, piazzas, or covered walks before them, in which the people, who walk, are so hid, that, to look up or down the streets, one sees no-body stirring, except with horses, carts, &c. and yet they may be said to be full of people. By the same means also the shops are, as it were, hid; little or no part of them being to be seen, unless one is under those rows, or just opposite to a house.

Nantwich, or Namptwich, is a large well-built town. The inhabitants are wealthy and carry on a considerable trade, particularly in salt and cheese, the latter exceeding all that is made in the county, from the excellency of the soil. Here are salt springs which lie on the banks of a fresh water stream, of which they make great quantities of salt. The water brought from the salt springs to the wick houses, as they are called, by troughs, is received into large casks set in the ground. From hence it is put into the leads, and a fire made for keeping it warm, during which women with wooden rakes gather it as it settles to the bottom. After this it is put into salt barrows, a kind of wicker baskets, in the shape of a sugar-loaf reversed, that the water may drain from it and leave the salt dry.

STAFFORDSHIRE, to the south east of Cheshire, is a rich, though not a fertile county, the principal places being

Litchfield, a large neat town, which is, when joined to Coventry, a bishopric. The cathedral suffered much in the time of the civil wars, but was thoroughly repaired after the restoration of Charles II. and is now a noble and admirable structure. It is walled in like a castle; but stands on such an eminence that it is seen 10 miles round.

Stafford is the shire town where the assizes are held. It stands low, on the river Sow, over which it has a good bridge. Here are two handsome churches, a free-school, and a spacious market-place, in which stands the shire-hall. It is well built and paved, and much increased of late, both in wealth and inhabitants, by its manufacture of cloth. The buildings are, for the most part, of stone and slate, and some of them in the modern taste. Not only the assizes, but the quarter sessions are kept in this town.

Wolverhampton stands on a high ground, and is a populous, well built town, and the streets well paved; but all the water the town is supplied with, except what falls from the skies, comes from four weak springs of different qualities, which go by the name of Pudding-well, Horse-well, Washing-well, and Meal-well. From the last they fetch all the water they use for boiling or brewing, in leather buckets, laid across a horse, with a funnel at the top, by which they fill them; and in the other wells they clean tripe, water horses, and wash linen. To the high and dry situation of the place is ascribed its healthy state.

SHROPSHIRE, south of Cheshire, is tolerably fertile:

Shrewsbury has two bridges over the Severn, which surrounds it, except on the north side, in the form of a horse-shoe, and renders it a peninsula. It has a free grammar school, founded and endowed by Edward VI. Queen Elizabeth rebuilt it, added a library, and endowed it more largely. Here are five churches, besides meeting houses: likewise 12 incorporated companies, who repair in their formalities, once a year, to Kingsland, on the opposite side of the Severn, where they entertain the mayor and corporation, in bowers erected for that purpose, and distinguished by mottos or devices suitable to their respective arts and trades.

The streets are large, and the houses well built, with hanging gardens down to the river. Charles II. would have erected this town into a city; but the townsmen chose to remain a corporation; for which refusal they were afterwards called the proud Salopians. The town has been famed throughout England for cakes. Its brawn is reckoned to exceed that of Canterbury. Here is plenty of provisions, especially salmon and other good fish. Here are many Welch families; and on market days the general language spoken is Welch. One great ornament in this town is that called the quarry, now converted into one of the finest walks in England, both for beauty and extent. It takes in at least 20 acres of ground on the south and south-west

sides of the town, betwixt its walls and the Severn. It is shaded with rows of lime trees on each side, and adorned in the center with a fine double alcove, and seats on both sides, one of them facing the town, and the other the river. It is reckoned not inferior to the mall in St. James's park. Upon the Welch bridge there is a noble gate, over the arch of which is placed the statue of the great Llewellyn, the idol of the Welch, and the last Welch prince.

Many curious and necessary particulars, which previously inserted in the respective counties would have been disgusting from the frequent repetition, may be known by the following table, where they are exhibited at one view.

A TABLE, containing the Modern and Antient Names of the Counties or Shires in England, the Titles they give, their Length, Breadth, Circumference, Cities and Towns, Distance from London, Market Towns, the Number of Members they send to Parliament, and the Number of Parishes and Acres contained in each.

Modern Names.	Antient Names.	Tit.	Leng	Bred.	Circumf.	Ch. City or Towns.	Dist. Lond.	Market Towns.	Parlia. Mem.	Numb. Parish.	Number of Acres.
Bedfordshire	Bedfordia	D.	22	15	73	Bedford	50	10	4	124	260,000
Berkshire	Readingum	E.	39	29	120	Reading	40	12	9	140	527,000
Buckinghamshire	Buckinghamia	E.	39	18	138	Buckingham	57	14	14	185	441,000
Cambridgeshire	Camboritum	E.	40	25	130	Cambridge	52	8	6	163	570,000
	Elia					Ely	68				
Cheshire	Deva	E.	45	25	130	Chester	182	12	4	86	720,000
Cornwall	Lansthaphadonia	D.	78	42	150	Launceston	214	27	44	171	960,000
						Truro	257				
Cumberland	Luguvallum	D.	55	38	168	Carlisle	298	14	6	58	1,040,000
Derbyshire	Derbia	E.	40	30	130	Derby	126	11	4	106	680,000
Devonshire	Ifca Danmoniorum	D.	69	66	200	Exeter	173	40	26	394	1,920,000
	Plimuta					Plymouth	216				
Dorsetshire	Dunium	D.	50	40	150	Dorchester	120	22	20	248	772,000
Durham	Dunellum		39	35	107	Durham	257	8	4	52	610,000
Essex	Colonia	E.	47	43	150	Colchester	51	22	8	415	1,249,000
	Canonium					Chelmsford	28				
Gloucestershire	Clerum	D.	56	22	156	Gloucester	100	27	8	280	800,000
Hampshire	Venta Belgarnum		64	36	150	Winchester	63	18	26	253	1,312,000
	Clausentum					Southampton	75				
Herefordshire	Herefordia	E.	35	30	108	Hereford	130	8	8	176	660,000
Hertfordshire	Hertfordia	E.	36	28	140	Hertford	21	18	6	120	451,000
Huntingdonshire	Huntingdonia	E.	24	18	67	Huntingdon	59	6	4	79	240,000
Kent	Durovernum		56	36	166	Canterbury	56	28	18	408	1,248,000
	Roffa					Rochester	30				
Lancashire	Longovicus	D.	57	32	107	Lancaster	235	27	14	60	1,150,000
	Mancunium					Manchester	182				
Leicestershire	Rhagæ	E.	30	25	96	Leicester	99	13	4	200	560,000
Lincolnshire	Lindum	E.	60	35	180	Lincoln	132	39	12	688	1,740,000
Middlesex	Londinum	E.	24	18	95	London	0	5	18	143	247,000
	Westmonasterium					Westminster	1				
Monmouthshire	Monumenta	D.	29	20	84	Monmouth	125	8	3	127	
Norfolk	Norvicum	D.	57	35	140	Norwich	109	32	12	660	1,148,000
	Garrianorum					Yarmouth	123				
Northampton	Petroburgum	E.	55	26	125	Peterborough	81	11	9	330	550,000
	Antona Borealis					Northampton	66				
Northumberland	Gabrosentum	D.	50	40	150	Newcastle	271	11	8	46	1,370,000
Nottinghamshire	Nottinghamia	E.	43	24	110	Nottingham	126	9	8	168	560,000
Oxfordshire	Oxonium	E.	42	26	130	Oxford	54	15	9	280	534,000
Rutlandshire	Uxocona	D.	15	10	40	Oakham	96	2	2	48	11,000
Shropshire	Salopia		40	33	134	Shrewsbury	155	15	12	170	890,000
	Ludloa					Ludlow	138				
Somersetshire	Bristolium	E.	60	50	200	Bristol	117	30	18	385	1,075,000
	Aquæ Calidæ					Bath	108				
Staffordshire	Lichfeldia	E.	40	26	140	Litchfield	118	18	10	150	810,000
	Staffordia					Stafford	135				
Suffolk	Gippevicum	E.	48	24	146	Ipswich	69	32	16	575	995,000
	Villa Faustini					Bury	70				
Surrey	Neomagus	E.	34	21	112	Guilford	29	11	14	140	592,000
	Regiopolis					Kingston	12				
Suffex	Cicestria	E.	65	29	170	Chichester	61	18	28	312	
Warwickshire	Præsidium	E.	33	26	122	Warwick	93	14	6	158	670,000
	Coventria					Coventry	91				
Westmoreland	Concangium	E.	30	24	120	Kendal	257	8	4	64	510,000
Wiltshire	Sorbiodunum	E.	40	30	142	Salisbury	82	23	34	304	
						Wilton	85				
Worcestershire	Bannogenium		36	28	130	Worcester	111	11	9	152	549,000
Yorkshire	Eboracum	D.	114	80	360	York	197	49	30	563	3,770,000
	Richmondia					Richmond	230				

SECTION II.

PRINCIPALITY OF WALES.

WALES was formerly of greater extent than it is at present, as it included the counties of Monmouth and Hereford, which have since been annexed to England.

It is bounded on all sides by the sea and the Severn, except on the east, where it joins to the counties of Chester, Salop, Hereford, and Monmouth; being 113 miles long, and 90 broad where widest. The country, though generally mountainous, is not altogether unfruitful, as the vallies abound in corn, the seas and rivers with fish, and the hills, exclusive of the metals and minerals they contain, feed great quantities of black cattle, sheep, deer, goats, &c. This country is, at present, divided into eleven counties, exclusive of the Isle of Anglesey; according to which we shall consider it.

RADNORSHIRE, to the south west of Shropshire, is tolerably fertile. The chief commodities are sheep and horses. The principal place is

Radnor, 157 miles from London, a very ancient borough, chiefly consisting of thatched houses. It was called Radnor, by the English, from Rhaiadr Gwy, or the cataract of the river Wye, near the town of Rhaiadr. It stands in a fruitful valley, at the bottom of a hill, where abundance of sheep are fed.

BRECKNOCKSHIRE, to the south of Radnorshire, has a sharp but wholesome air, is very mountainous, and abounds with black cattle, venison, goats, and wild fowls.

Brecknock, or Brecon, 159 miles from London, which is the capital, and almost the centre of the county, is a compact, well-built town, where the assizes are held. It stands at the confluence of the rivers Honthy and Usk, over which it has a good stone bridge. It is well inhabited, and has some share in the woollen manufacture. The ruins of its castle, built by Bernard de Newmarch, in the reign of William Rufus, remain. Its markets are well supplied with cattle, corn, and other provisions. Brecknock Priory was founded in the reign of Henry I. by Bernard de Newmarch. It is now a collegiate church, and still a magnificent building, situated on an eminence, and built in the form of a cross. There are two other churches.

GLAMORGANSHIRE, situated north of the Bristol Channel, is tolerably fertile towards the southern parts.

Cardiff, 161 miles from London, the capital, where the assizes are held, has a bridge over the Taff, to which small vessels may come up. It is a large, well-built town; and though it comprehends two parishes, has but one church. It has a good trade with Bristol, and plentiful markets and fairs for corn, cattle, sheep, horses and swine.

Swansey, 202 miles from London, is an ancient, large, well-built town, which drives the greatest trade of any in the county, especially in coals, holds a great correspondence with Bristol, and has an exceeding good harbour. The town stands on the river Twye, and its markets are well furnished with all necessaries. Here are the remains of an ancient castle, built by Henry Beaumont, earl of Warwick.

Landaff, though the see of a bishop, has not so much as a market. The cathedral is a neat, ancient building.

CARMARTHENSHIRE, situated north-west of Glamorganshire, has a milder air, and is more fruitful than most of the Welch counties.

Caermarthen, 204 miles from London, is situated on the river Towy, over which it has a stone bridge, and is a place venerable for its antiquity. It is a thriving and populous town, of great resort, and drives a very considerable trade. This place was anciently reckoned the capital of Wales. The Britons made it the seat of their assemblies.

PEMBROKESHIRE is encompassed around by St. George's Channel, except on the east side, where it joins to Carmarthenshire, and on the north east to Cardiganshire. It is a fruitful county.

Pembroke, 234 miles from London, the country town, stands at the innermost eastern creek of Milford Haven. It has two handsome bridges over the two points of it. Here are the remains of an ancient castle on a rock, in which Henry VII. was born; and under it is a vault noted for a strange echo, called the Wogan. It has two parishes, a custom-house, and several merchants houses, well built.

Haverford-west, 236 miles from London, stands on the side of a hill, is a very neat, well built, strong, populous, and trading town, having a fine stone bridge, plentiful markets, a commodious quay for ships of burthen, and a custom-house. There are three parish churches in the town, besides one in the out parts, called Prengest.

Milford-Haven has 16 creeks, five bays, and 13 roads, in which 1000 sail of ships may ride securely. There is no danger in sailing in or out of it with the tide, and almost any wind, by night as well as by day; and a ship in distress may run ashore on soft ooze, and there lie safe. The spring tide rises in the harbour 36 feet, and the neap about 26. But that which makes this the most excellent and useful harbour in this part of the world, is, that in an hour's time a ship is out of the harbour into the sea, and in a fair way between the Lands-end and Ireland. As it lies in the mouth of the Severn, a ship, in eight or ten hours, may be over on the coast of Ireland.

ST. DAVID'S is an episcopal see, which was once considerable, but is now small, and thinly inhabited. The cathedral is the remnant of a venerable building.

CARDIGANSHIRE, situated north-east of St. George's Channel, is a barren county, but contains some valuable mines.

Cardigan, 222 miles from London, is pleasantly situated at the mouth of the Teivy, over which it has a stone bridge, leading into Pembrokeshire. It is a large, ancient, and populous borough, and carries on a considerable trade, especially to Ireland, the tide flowing up to the town. The church is a handsome structure; but the castle is in a ruinous condition.

Aberistwyth, though a small town, has a very considerable market once a week.

MONTGOMERYSHIRE, to the east of Merionethshire, and the west of Shropshire, is in the principal parts fertile, and remarkable for the horses being larger than in the other parts of Wales.

Montgomery, 161 miles from London, is situated in a very healthy air, on the easy ascent of a rocky hill, having beneath it a pleasant valley, through which the Severn winds its course. The town is large, but the buildings indifferent, except a few belonging to considerable families.

Welch Pool, six miles from Montgomery, is a large, well-built corporate town, situated on a lake in a fruitful valley, where is a good manufacture of flannel. On the south side is a red castle, belonging to the Earl of Powis.

MERIONETHSHIRE, east of St. George's Channel, is a mountainous, barren, bleak, unhealthy county; and the inhabitants are more remarkable for idleness and incontinency than any other Welch people.

Harlech, 223 miles from London, is situated on a rock near the sea, where is an harbour for ships. It is a mean town, thinly inhabited, but has a garrison for the security of the coast, and an old decayed castle, originally a strong fort of the ancient Britons. In the year 1694 the country about Harlech was annoyed above eight months with a fiery exhalation of a curd colour, which arose from the sea, and was seen only in the night. It set fire to barns, stacks of hay and corn, in its way; infected the air, and blasted the grass and herbage; so that a great mortality among the sheep, horses, and cattle, ensued.

Dolgelly, 36 miles from Welch Pool, is situated in a woody valley by the Avon, at the foot of the great mountain Cader-Idris, which, by computation, is near three miles high, and one of the loftiest in Britain. Here are inns for travellers, and a good market for Welch cottons.

CARNARVONSHIRE, situated south-east of the Isle of Anglesey, is very mountainous, but abounds in cattle, sheep, goats, &c.

Carnarvon, 251 miles from London, is situated on the channel that separates this from the Isle of Anglesey, and was built by command of Edward I. out of the ruins of the city Sagontium, which stood a little below it. The town has a beautiful prospect of the Isle of Anglesey. It had a strong castle now in ruins. The market is supplied with corn, and all sorts of provisions.

DENBIGHSHIRE, to the south west of Flintshire, is, in many parts, mountainous and barren, yet contains some fertile spots.

Denbigh, 210 miles from London, is a handsome, populous town, stands on a branch of the Clwyd, has a good trade, and is by some esteemed the best town in North Wales. It has a good market for corn, cattle, and other provisions; and two churches. Here are the ruins of a castle dismantled in the civil wars; and also those of an abbey of monks.

Wrexham is a town well inhabited, and contains a handsome church, the steeple of which is admired for its curious architecture.

Ruthin, situated in the vale of Clwyd, is a corporation town, well inhabited, and has an hospital and free-school.

FLINTSHIRE, situated west of Cheshire, is in many places fertile, and contains some mines.

Flint, 195 miles from London, is the county town, and stands on an arm of the river Dee. It had formerly a castle, the ruins of which are still remaining.

St. Asaph, 212 miles from London, is a bishop's see, situated in the vale of Clwyd, at the conflux of the Elwy with the Clwyd; but the buildings are not remarkable for beauty, nor the church for elegance. The episcopal see was founded in the year 560, by Kentigern, bishop of Glasgow, in Scotland, who resigned it to his disciple Asaph, from whom it has its name.

The county of Anglesey will be described in our account of islands belonging to or surrounding Great Britain. The following table will exhibit, in one point of view, the particulars relative to the counties before mentioned:

Counties	Chief Towns.	Leng.	Bred.	Parish	Mem. of Par.
Radnorshire	New Radnor	20	18	5	2
Brecknockshire	Brecknock	35	34	61	2
Glamorganshire	Cardiff	45	21	18	2
Carmarthenshire	Carmarthen	40	27	8	2
Pembrokeshire	Pembroke	33	28	145	3
Cardiganshire	Cardigan	40	18	64	2
Montgomerysh.	Montgomery	30	25	47	2
Merionethshire	Harleck	35	25	37	1
Carnarvonshire	Carnarvon	40	68	68	2
Denbighshire	Denbigh	31	17	57	2
Flintshire	Flint	33	8	28	2

SECTION III.

Persons, Dispositions, Genius, Customs, Manners, Diseases, Classes and Orders, superior and inferior; relative Connections, &c. of the People of South Britain.

THE people of England, in general, are of a good size, and well made. They have regular features, and commonly fair skins and florid complexions. It is, however, to be presumed, that the great numbers of foreigners that are intermarried with the natives, have given a cast to their persons and complexions, different

from those of their ancestors. The women, in particular, are deemed the most beautiful in Europe. Besides many external graces, peculiar to them, they are to be esteemed for their prudent behaviour, thorough cleanliness, a tender affection for their husbands and children, and all the engaging duties of domestic life. The fashionable dress of the English is usually copied from the French; but the former generally add decency and cleanliness to the decorations of the latter. The most common personal defect is decayed teeth, from the scorbutic humour common to the country.

The nerves of the English are so delicate, that people of both sexes are sometimes forcibly, nay mortally, affected by imagination. This over sensibility has been considered as one of the sources of those singularities which so strongly characterize the English nation. They sometimes magnify the smallest appearances into real ills; and yet when real danger approaches, no people face it with greater resolution or constancy of mind.

The manners of the English people vary in the different classes of which they are composed, according to the difference of education and intercourse. Persons of fashion, after having studied at the university, commonly travel for improvement. They are magnificent in their dress, equipage, dwellings, and manner of living; generally polite, hospitable, good-natured, humane, charitable, and forgiving. On the reverse of their character, we likewise observe a disposition to gaming and riot. They are in general blunt, artless, and averse to servility and cringing. Hence arises too frequently a rudeness of behaviour, which, by foreigners, has been considered as bordering on brutality. The English merchants are, beyond all others, famous for their honourable dealings, as well as for their knowledge of trade, and their extensive commerce. The people, in general, are masters of the different professions they exercise. Their workmanship is neatly and elegantly finished, far above any thing of the same sort in other countries; and tho' they are not the most remarkable for their discoveries in the arts of handicraft, they never fail to make improvements on the inventions of their neighbours.

The English have been always equally famed for courage and ingenuity. Their soldiers are fearless in the day of battle, and have obtained a great number of signal victories, over the most powerful and warlike nations on the continent; and their sailors are confessedly superior to all the mariners upon earth, in activity, skill, and intrepidity.

The diversions and pastimes of the English people may be divided into those of the town, and those of the country; and again subdivided into such as are peculiar to the higher ranks of life; such as are practised by the lower class of people, and such as are common to both. The diversions of the town are ridottos, masquerades, concerts of music, theatrical performances, and card assemblies, for persons of fashion. The pastimes of the country, peculiar to the same degree, are horse-races, stag, fox, and hare-hunting. A spirit of gaming prevails with great violence at a horse-race. Hunting is the sport of country gentlemen; and those whom the world distinguish by the appellation of fox-hunters, seem to be infatuated with the diversion. The common people have likewise their town and country pastimes, which they enjoy with great eagerness. Among these we number cudgeling, wrestling, duck-hunting, bowls, skittles, or nine-pins, archery, prison bars, cricket, shovel-board, quoits, divers games of chance, and spectacles of various kinds.

Most of the houses, belonging to persons of fashion, are built of stone, large, magnificent, and well provided with offices. The apartments are spacious, adorned with carvings and paintings, and the furniture rich and splendid. The middling sort of people live in brick houses, roomy, convenient, well finished, and neatly furnished. The habitations of the lower class are built of the same materials, though not so large and well finished; and, perhaps, several families are crowd-



ANCIENT ENGLISH DRESSES.

1a. Nobleman in 1557... 2a. Merchant of London in 1588... 3a Gentleman in 1590.



ANCIENT ENGLISH DRESSES.

1a. Nobleman in his Robes in 1490... 2a Nobleman in 1550... 3a Gentleman in 1550.



ANCIENT ENGLISH DRESSES .

1 a Lady of Quality in 1590..... 2 a Lady in 1626..... 3 a Lady in 1630.



Orignon. sculp.

ANCIENT ENGLISH DRESSES .

1 a Lady of Quality in 1551 2 a Lady in 1577. 3 a Lady of Quality in 1585.

ed into one house. The English, in general, are fond of good cheer, and, perhaps, live more luxuriously than any other people.

Distempers arising from intemperance are rife in England, especially in the great towns; fevers of all kinds, continual, remitting, and intermitting; inflammations, malignant and eruptive; pleurifies, coughs, catarrhs, diarrhoeas, dysenteries, and consumptions; gout, gravel, dropsy, jaundice, and the lues venerea. But the endemial diseases of this climate are the scurvy, the hypochondriacy, and, particularly among the fair sex, hysterics.

The monarch of England is distinguished by the titles of George III. by the grace of God, of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith. He styles himself King of France from an antient claim which his predecessors had to that kingdom. The title, Defender of the Faith, was an antient appellation given to the kings of England; but more particularly confirmed by Leo X. to Henry VIII. in consequence of a book written by this prince against Luther. The title was afterwards continued by act of parliament. The king of England is supreme head of the church, and chief magistrate of the kingdom. He has the supreme right of patronage, paramount over all the ecclesiastical benefices in England. He is the supreme civil judge, and the fountain from which all justice is derived. In point of power, pomp, dignity, and revenue, he rivals the greatest monarchs in Christendom.

The royal achievement (arms) borne by the reigning family is thus marshalled quarterly. In the first grand quarter Mars, three lions passant-guardant in pale, Sol, the imperial ensigns of England: these are impaled with the royal arms of Scotland, consisting of Sol, a lion rampant within a double tressure flowered and counterflowered, with fleurs de lis, Mars. The second quarter contains the arms of France, namely, Jupiter, three fleurs de lis, Sol. The third, for Ireland, exhibits Jupiter, an harp, Sol, stringed Luna. In the fourth grand quarter is represented his present majesty's own coat of arms, being Mars, two lions passant-guardant, Sol, for Brunswick, impaled with Lunenburg, giving Sol, semée of hearts, proper, a lion rampant, Jupiter, having for antient Saxony, Mars, an horse current, Luna, grafted in base; and in a shield surmount, Mars, the diadem, or, a crown of Charlemagne; the whole surrounded with a garter, as sovereign of that order. Above the helmet, as the emblem of sovereign jurisdiction, is an imperial crown; the crest a lion passant-guardant crowned with the like: the supporters, a lion rampant-guardant, Sol, crowned as the former; and an unicorn, Luna, gorged with a crown, and chained. The royal motto, *Dieu et mon droit*, "God and my right," is as old as the reign of king Richard I. who assumed it to shew his independence upon all earthly powers.

The eldest son of the king of England is born duke of Cornwall, and afterwards created prince of Wales, with letters-patent, by which the said principality and a certain revenue are granted to him. He bears the king's arms, with the addition of a label of three points, charged with nine torteaux; his device being a coronet beautified with three ostrich feathers, inscribed *Ich dien*, signifying, in the German language, "I serve."

The nobility of England are numerous and wealthy; and no country in Europe can produce such a number of noblemen living in all the pomp of affluence, and all the joys of independence. They are distinguished by the different titles of duke, marquis, earl, viscount and baron. The sons of nobility enjoy certain titles by courtesy, according to the rank of their fathers; but the law ranks them among the commons of England. Thus the eldest son of a duke is denominated marquis or earl; and the younger sons are saluted by the appellation of My Lord. The first son of a marquis or earl is denominated lord of some barony belonging to his father, and his brothers are likewise addressed by the

title of lord. The sisters enjoy the honourable title of lady in the same manner. But this courtesy is not extended to the younger children of viscounts and barons.

The next class or order of persons, after the barons, are the baronets of England, so called as an inferior kind of barons. The title of baronet is conferred by patent under the great seal, and descends to heirs male. Like other knights, he is distinguished by the appellative Sir, prefixed to his christian name, in speaking and writing.

Exclusive of baronets, there are three orders of knighthood, viz. Garter, Bath, and Thistle. The order of the Garter, dedicated to St. George, is one of the most antient and honourable orders in the universe. The seat of the order is in the castle of Windsor, consisting of the chapter-house, the hall, and chapel of St. George. A knight of this order is distinguished by a blue garter with a gold buckle, worn on the left leg, and inscribed *Honi soit qui mal y pense*; signifying, "Shame to him who puts a bad construction on this order;" by an embroidered silver star on the left breast; and the picture of St. George, enamelled upon gold, and beset with diamonds, hanging at the end of a broad blue ribbon, that crosses the body from the left shoulder.

The order of the Bath was instituted by king Henry IV. and took its denomination from their bathing on the eve of their admission. The order, which had grown obsolete, was revived by king George the First, in the year 1725, when 18 noblemen, and as many commoners, were installed Knights of the Bath, with great ceremony, at Westminster. They are distinguished by a star on the breast, and a broad red ribbon, worn like a belt, over the shoulder. The motto of this order, is *Tria juncta in uno*.

The order of the Thistle, peculiar to Scotland, consists of the sovereign and 12 knights, who wear a green ribbon over the shoulder, and on the breast an embroidered star, representing St. Andrew irradiated, with this motto, *Nemo me impune lacessit*.

All the gentlemen of South Britain, not distinguished by nobility or knighthood, have the general denomination of Esquires. The highest order of plebeians are freeholders or yeomen; then follow copyholders, merchants, traders, mechanics, hired servants, and day-labourers. But it is to be observed, that *opulent merchants* are considered as of greater importance than the degree wherein they are placed in the above scale, and frequently, by means of large portions, wed their daughters to nobility.

A woman in England, as soon as married, is, with all her moveables, at the will and disposition of her husband; nor can she alienate any thing without his consent. Her necessary apparel is not her own property. Nay, at the death of her husband, all the personal chattles she possessed at marriage descend to his executor or administrator. She can make no contract without her husband's consent, nor reply without him, in matters of law. On the other hand, he must pay the debts which she has contracted; and if she should injure any person by her tongue or trespass, he will be obliged to make satisfaction.

The authority of fathers is so absolute in England, that they may give away their unentailed estates from their own children, or bequeath their fortunes to any one child, in preference to all the rest. A youth of 14 may choose his guardian, and consent to marriage; at 21 he is at age to make any contract, deed, or will, and to sit in parliament. The eldest son commonly inherits the landed estate, and the younger children are portioned from the goods and chattels.

With respect to the inhabitants of that part of South Britain called Wales, they are, in general, brave, hardy and hospitable; jealous of affronts, hasty, and proud. The nobility and gentry speak the English language, affect the English fashions, and endeavour to civilize the lower orders of their countrymen. The

common people (though some of them speak English indifferently) commonly use the Welch, being particularly attached to their own language.

SECTION IV.

Constitution, Government, Laws, &c.

IN all states there is an absolute supreme power, to which the right of legislation belongs, and which, by the singular constitution of these kingdoms, is here vested in king, lords, and commons.

The supreme executive power of Great Britain and Ireland is vested, by our constitution, in a single person, king or queen. The person entitled to it, whether male or female, is entrusted with all the ensigns, rights, and prerogatives of sovereign power.

The grand fundamental maxim upon which the right of succession to the throne of these kingdoms depends, is "That the crown, by common law, and constitutional custom, is hereditary, and this in a manner peculiar to itself; but that the right of inheritance may, from time to time, be changed or limited, by act of parliament, under which limitations the crown still continues hereditary."

At the revolution in 1688 the convention of the estates, or representative body of the nation, declared, that the misconduct of King James II. amounted to an abdication of the government, and that the throne was thereby vacant. In consequence of this vacancy, and from a regard to the ancient line, the convention appointed the next Protestant heir of the blood royal of Charles I. to fill the vacant throne, with a temporary exception, or preference, to the person of king William III.

On the impending failure of the Protestant line of king Charles I. the king and parliament extended the settlement of the crown to the Protestant line of king James I. viz. to the princess Sophia of Hanover, and the heirs of her body, being Protestants. She married the duke of Brunswick Lunenburg, by whom she had George, elector of Hanover, who ascended the throne, by an act of parliament expressly made in favour of his mother; and that princess is now the common stock from whom the heirs of the crown must descend. This appears to be the true constitutional notion of the right of succession to the imperial crown of these kingdoms.

When such an hereditary right, as our laws have created, and vested in the royal stock, is closely interwoven with those liberties, which are equally the inheritance of the subject, this union will form a constitution in theory the most beautiful, in practice the most approved, and in duration the most permanent. This constitution it is the duty of every Briton to understand, to revere, and to defend.

The house of lords is composed of all the peers of the realm, spiritual and temporal. The commons, including the Scotch members, are chosen by the counties and boroughs, and in their collective body are supposed to represent the people of England.

It is highly necessary, for preserving the balance of the constitution, that the executive power should be a branch, though not the whole of the legislature. The crown cannot begin of itself any alterations in the present established law; but it may approve or disapprove of the alterations suggested and consented to by the two houses. The legislative, therefore, cannot abridge the executive power of any rights which it has now by law, without its own consent; since the law must perpetually stand as it now does, unless all the powers will agree to alter it. Herein consists the true excellence of our government, that all the parts of it form a mutual check upon each other. In the legislature the people are a check upon the nobility, and the nobility a check upon the people, by the mutual privilege of rejecting what the other has resolved, while the king is a check upon both, which prevents the executive power from encroachments.

The king of England, besides his high court of parliament, has subordinate officers and ministers to assist him; and these are responsible for their advice and conduct. The peers of the realm are, by their dignity, hereditary counsellors, and may be called together at any time, to impart their advice in all matters of importance to the public weal. Another council are the judges of the courts of law. But the principal is the privy council, called, by way of eminence, "The council." Privy counsellors are made by the king's nomination, and subject to a removal at his discretion. The power of the privy council consists in enquiring into all offences against the government, and in committing offenders into safe custody, in order to take their trial in some of the courts of law. But their jurisdiction does not extend to punishment; and the persons committed by them are entitled to their *habeas corpus* equally with those committed by an ordinary justice of the peace. In this council the civil government is regulated, and every new measure of the administration proposed and planned.

There is a committee of the privy council, called the cabinet-council, consisting of a number of ministers and noblemen, according to the king's opinion of their integrity and abilities, or attachment to the views of the court. One of the members of the cabinet council is generally considered as first minister, though, in reality, there is no office of that kind. A responsibility for all the transactions of government, is, however, always annexed to the title, which renders it a post of great danger and difficulty.

The great officers of the crown, who take place next to the princes of the blood, and the two primates, are nine in number, viz. the Lord High Steward, the Lord Chancellor, Lord Treasurer, Lord President of the Council, the Lord Privy Seal, the Lord Chamberlain, the Lord High Constable, the Earl Marshal, and the Lord High Admiral.

The office of Lord High Steward is only exercised occasionally, as at coronations and trials. That of Lord High Treasurer is vested in a commission of five persons; the first of whom is supposed to possess the power of Lord High Treasurer. That of Lord High Constable is introduced at a coronation; and that of Lord High Admiral is now held by commission, and is of very great importance.

The judges of England, appointed by the king, are 12 in number, disposed in different courts of judicature, and divided into certain circuits, for the administration of justice through all parts of the realm. The tribunals held at Westminster are, the courts of King's-Bench, Common-Pleas, Chancery, Exchequer, and the duchy chamber of Lancaster.

The punishments inflicted on civil criminals in England, are different from those adjudged in other countries. High treason, petit treason, rape, sodomy, murder, and felony, are capital crimes by the laws of this country. A traitor is first hanged up, then cut down, opened and embowelled; after which he is quartered, and his head and members exposed to the populace. But in noblemen this sentence is, by the indulgence of the crown, always changed into decapitation; and the criminal in that case is beheaded with an ax on a public scaffold. A traitor is not quit for his own life; but his conviction is attended with the ruin of his family. He forfeits all his lands and goods; his wife loses her dowry; and his children are deprived of their nobility, and right of inheritance. Coiners, though adjudged guilty of high treason, are only hanged and drawn. Petit treason, comprehending the murder of a master or mistress by a servant, of a husband by his wife, or of a bishop by a clergyman, who owes him obedience, is punished by drawing the criminal to the gallows on a hurdle, and hanging him by the neck until he be dead, except in the case of a female, who, for high treason, as well as petit treason, is sentenced to be drawn and burned alive. All other capital crimes are punished by hanging; and in cases of murder, the body of the criminal

criminal is adjudged to the surgeons, to be by them dissected in public.

The punishments for smaller offences are, burning in the hand, hard labour, imprisonment, the pillory, whipping, fine, &c.

SECTION V.

Religion, Language, Learning, Commerce, Coin, Weights and Measures, Military and Naval Force, &c.

THE established religion of England is a Protestant Episcopal church. The king of England is acknowledged as supreme head of the church, governed by two archbishops and 24 suffragans, each of these enjoying the title of lord, on account of the barony annexed, and having precedence immediately after viscounts, in parliament as well as in other assemblies. The two archiepiscopal sees are those of Canterbury and York, to which all the other dioceses of England and Wales are subject. The archbishop of Canterbury is styled the primate of all England; is the first peer of the kingdom; precedes all dukes and great officers of the crown, next the royal family; and performs the ceremony of the coronation. The dioceses contained in the province of Canterbury are those of London, Winchester, Ely, Lincoln, Rochester, Litchfield and Coventry, Hereford, Worcester, Bath and Wells, Salisbury, Exeter, Chichester, Norwich, Gloucester, Oxford, Peterborough, and Bristol; and in Wales, the bishoprics of St. David's, Landaff, St. Asaph, and Bangor. The archbishop of York is styled primate of England, and metropolitan; hath place and precedence of all dukes next to the royal family, and all great officers of state, except the lord chancellor. He enjoys many prerogatives and privileges within his own province, which comprehends the bishoprics of Durham, Carlisle, and Chester, besides that of Soder and Man.

The church of England is more tolerant than any other national church, with respect to its principles. Moderation being its governing character, no religious sect here is prevented from worshipping God in that manner which their consciences approve. Hence, since the reformation, a number of sects have arisen under the several denominations of Presbyterians, Independents, Baptists, Methodists, Quakers, &c.

Though unqualified men are admitted as preachers amongst some of those sects, many of the ministers of those who exclude the illiterate from their pulpits, have greatly distinguished themselves by their learning and abilities; and some of their writings are held in high estimation by many of the clergy, and other members of the established church.

Numbers of families in England still profess the Roman Catholic religion; and its exercise is under very mild and gentle restrictions. Some writers have exclaimed with great violence against the numerous sects tolerated in this country; but let it be considered that civil and religious liberty are closely connected, and that it by no means becomes any church, which makes no pretensions to infallibility, to set up the standard of persecution. Where candour and charity, and a love of truth and liberty, unite, among those who differ in sentiment, peace, order, and harmony must ever prevail.

The English language is compounded of several others, but more particularly of Saxon, Celtic, French, and Latin; but the former predominates. This, instead of rendering it defective, gives it innumerable graces; since it has incorporated most of the beauties, and rejected the defects, of the languages of which it is composed. Hence it is more energetic than the French, more manly than the Italian, more copious than the Spanish, and more elegant than the German.

England may be deemed the seat of the muses. Alfred the Great cultivated literature at a period when all the rest of Europe was plunged into ignorance and barbarism. Since his time a continual succession of

learned men have been distinguished by their masterly writings, and done credit to the British name; and, at present, literature in England seems to have arrived at its utmost zenith. Indeed, we have men of genius and ingenuity, who, in almost every art, science, manufactory, and profession, exceed those of any other nation.

England, being plentifully supplied with all the conveniences of life, could subsist without the assistance of any other country whatsoever. But as foreign commerce is advantageous, employs abundance of artists, as well as a great number of poor, and is a manifest improvement to all manufacture in general, so it is the surest and most effectual means not only to enrich, but to strengthen the nation, and render it a terror to its enemies.

The English merchants traffic largely with Russia, Sweden, Denmark, Norway, Hamburgh, Bremen, both sides of the Baltic, all the northern parts of Germany, Holland, Flanders, Portugal, Sicily, Italy, the Levant, the coast of Africa, and the East and West Indies. The commodities exported from England are comprehended in the different articles of corn, cattle, ship provision, butter, cheese, beef, pork, biscuit, iron, lead, tin, copper, manufactured and unmanufactured leather, copperas, allum, pit-coal, saffron, hops, flax, hats, shoes, herrings, pilchards, cod, salmon, oysters, liquorice, watches, ribbons, toys, and all the different manufactures of wool, such as broad cloth, bays, kerseys, rushes, serges, says, frizes, stuffs, flannels, rugs, caps, and stockings. The products of wool are the principal article of the English traffic, the exports of them exceeding two millions yearly. The fishery is very considerable, and, if properly cultivated, would equal, if not excel, any other branch of commerce. It consists of pickled herrings, cod, ling, and tusk, from Shetland, and the Scottish coast; red herrings from Yarmouth; and pilchards from the western coast of England; besides, a considerable number of ships annually employed in the whale fishery of Spitzbergen. The imports from various parts of the globe are immense, and need not enumeration, as they consist of the produce and manufactures of most of the countries in the universe. Many branches of foreign commerce are monopolized and managed by incorporated, or chartered companies. For the still greater promotion of English trade, a council of commerce, or board of trade, is likewise held at Whitehall.

The English funds are perfectly secure, though the national debt is enormous; and the revenues are immense, though of so complicated a nature as not to be easily ascertained. Accompts are kept in pounds, shillings, pence, and farthings; the former being only a nominal sum. Besides farthings, halfpence, sixpences, shillings, half-crowns, guineas, half-guineas, which are the common current coins, there are some silver pieces, such as pence, two-pences, three-pences, and groats; and some gold ones, such as two and five guinea pieces. There are two sorts of weights, troy and avoirdupois. All goods subject to waste are weighed by the latter, all others by the former. Twelve ounces of the first, and 16 of the latter, constitute a pound. Measures of length are the inch, foot, yard, fathom, perch or pole, acre, furlong, and mile. Dry measures are the pint, quart, gallon, peck, bushel, comb, quarter, last, and chaldron. Liquid measures are the gill, half-pint, pint, quart, gallon, firkin, kilderkin, barrel, hoghead, pipe, butt, and tun.

The land forces of Great Britain, in time of peace, do not exceed 40,000, viz, 12,000 in Ireland, and the rest in Great Britain, and various garrisons beyond the seas; but in time of war, during hostilities, the number is augmented, according to exigencies; and sometimes the troops in pay are very numerous. The navy of Great Britain is more powerful than that of any other country in the universe. In peaceable times a number of mariners are retained by government; but when necessity requires, the British fleet is rendered amazingly formidable.

SECTION VI.

NORTH BRITAIN, or
SCOTLAND.

SCOTLAND, situated to the north of England, is bounded northward by the Frozen, westward by the British Ocean, and to the south it joins England. The length is 250 miles; and the breadth, where widest, 150. The principal part of the country is mountainous and hilly; the air sharp, but wholesome; and the soil, in general, inferior to that of England. It is divided into two districts, viz. Highlands and Lowlands. The people of the former are rude and uncivilized; but those of the latter imitate the English customs and manners. The whole kingdom is well watered with rivers and lakes. There are a few forests of fir. Timber, in general, however, is scarce. The quarries contain free-stone; and, indeed, Scotland, in general, in every part of its natural history, resembles England, except that most of its productions, from the more unfavourable situation, are rather inferior to those of South Britain.

With respect to character, the Scotch are brave, passionate, and vindictive; but they are accused, particularly the Highlanders, of insincerity, rapacity, avarice, pride, and nastiness. Indeed, a celebrated Scotch author, in speaking of Scotland, acknowledges that "cleanliness is a virtue very rarely found in this part of the world;" but adds, "persons of education, fortune, and sentiment, ought to be exempted from this national reproach." They are fond of rambling in search of adventures and money. Hence the proverb, "In every corner of the earth you may find a Scot, a rat, and a Newcastle grindstone." Many of them attain to a degree of eminence in the various branches of literature. They are good soldiers, and obsequious servants. Their clothes are after the English fashion, except that their peasants wear blue bonnets, and the Highlanders plaids, the only remains of the ancient Roman dress. They have long visages, high cheek bones, and commonly sandy hair. They are abstemious in diet, and badly accommodated in their houses. Most of the Scotch are uncommonly fond of music, and their tunes are sweet, expressive, and affecting. Their common instrument is the bagpipe. The religion is Presbytery; and the kirk of the kingdom is divided into 13 provincial synods, which contain 68 presbyteries, and 938 parishes. Sixteen peers, and 45 commoners, are sent from Scotland to the English parliament. This kingdom is divided into the following counties.

CAITHNESS, the most northern county of Scotland, is very rocky, includes many bays and promontories, abounds in cattle, sheep, goats, roe-bucks, red deer, and produces copper and iron; but the inhabitants principally live by fishing and grazing. The principal place is Weick, a royal borough and market; though Thurso, a town on the other side of the county, is deemed more populous.

SUTHERLAND, south-west of Caithness, is mountainous and barren, but well supplied with fish and wild fowl, by reason that it is not only watered by several rivers, but contains above 60 lakes, including various small islands. The principal place is the royal borough of Dornoch, which is the seat of a presbytery, contains a cathedral, and consists of nine parishes.

ROSS, which includes Tayne and Cromartie, is situated to the south-west of Sutherland, and has snow on its mountains the greatest part of the year. The valleys, however, are fertile, the air good, and the hills produce forests of fir, game, &c. The chief place, Channerie, though the seat of a presbytery, is but an inconsiderable market-town.

INVERNESS, to the south of Ross-shire, is a barren county, but produces wood, iron, and game. At the

mouth of the Aber, in the center between the West and North Highlands, stand the towns of Maryborough and Fort William, built to check the depredations of some of the Clans. Inverness, from which the shire derives its name, is a royal borough on the river Neefs, over which there is a bridge of seven arches. It is the seat of a presbytery, contains 13 parishes, and may be justly deemed the key and capital of the islands. In this county is the lake of Lochness, which never freezes in the severest winter.

NAIRN, situated to the south-east of Ross-shire, has a salubrious and temperate air, and contains some tolerable pasture land. The only place of note is Nairn, on a river of the same name. Though a royal borough, it is poor and mean, and the harbour is quite choaked up.

ELGIN, to the east of Nairn, has a tolerable air, and the low country is fertile. The town of Elgin is a royal borough, situated in a verdant plain on the river Lossie. It is the seat of a presbytery, including 13 parishes.

ARGYLSHIRE, to the south-west of Inverness, is a wild barren country. The town of Argyle is the seat of a Provincial Synod, consisting of five presbyteries and 49 parishes, and gives the title of duke and earl to the noble family of Campbell, the most powerful of all the Scottish nobility. This shire is divided into several districts, viz. Kintyre, Knapdale, Korne, Argyle, properly so, and Cowal.

PERTHSHIRE is situated about the center of Scotland, and may be deemed one of its most fertile provinces. The people are polite and industrious, and their habitations neater than in most other parts of the kingdom. The shire is divided into several districts, viz. Menteith, Braidalbin, Athol, Strathern, Gowrie, Perth Proper, and Scone.

Perth, the capital of the province, is an agreeable, populous town, situated 20 miles within land, on the south bank of the river Tay. It was otherwise called St. Johnston's, from a church dedicated to St. John, as the patron of the place. It is a royal borough, second in dignity to the metropolis, and the seat of a large presbytery.

Scone, or Scaan, supposed to be the center of the kingdom, is a royal palace, standing on the north bank of the Tay, famous, in former ages, for the adjoining abbey, founded for the monks of the order of St. Augustine. Here the kings of Scotland were crowned in the fatal chair, said to be brought by Fergus from Ireland, including in its bottom a rough marble stone. It was removed from hence by Edward I. of England, and deposited in Westminster-abbey, where it still remains. Scone gives the title of baron to the viscount Stormont, a branch of the family of Murray. He is also hereditary keeper of this palace, which is large, spacious, and magnificent, though built in the ancient manner. Some of the pannels are adorned with paintings, performed above 200 years ago; and here is a bed of fine needle-work, sewed by the hands of Mary, queen of Scots. The house was provided with elegant gardens, a chapel, and offices; but the whole is now fallen into decay. It was in the chapel that king Charles II. took the covenant, when the Scots invited him to this kingdom. Here the Pretender resided three weeks, in all the state of a monarch; while his general, the earl of Mar, lay with his forces at Perth.

BAMFESHIRE, to the west of Aberdeenshire, is a very fertile pleasant county, inhabited chiefly by Lowlanders.

Bamff, situated on the coast of the Murray Frith, is a royal borough, of very little consideration. It was of old secured by a castle, which is now in ruins. This is likewise the case with the abbey of Deer, in the neighbourhood, which belonged to the Cistercian monks.

ABERDEENSHIRE has a wholesome air, is well watered, finely diversified with hills and dales, and pretty fertile.

The capital of this county is Aberdeen, 80 miles north of Edinburgh. It stands upon the rivers Dee and Don, and is, in effect, divided into two distinct towns. Old Aberdeen, the seat of a presbytery, built at the mouth of the Don, has a church made of hewn stone, with a lofty steeple or turret, ending in an imperial crown, with a round globe of stone, and two gilded crosses. Near the church is a library, furnished with a valuable collection of books. Old Aberdeen is chiefly remarkable for the college founded by king James IV. consisting of a principal, sub-principal, regents, or professors, of divinity, civil law, physic, philosophy, and the languages. To these endowments Charles I. added eight bursters, out of the revenues of vacant bishoprics. King Charles II. bestowed upon it the benefices of vacant churches in several dioceses for seven years. From these benefactions it derived the name of the Caroline University. The town is small, indifferently built, and inconsiderable, though very ancient. About a mile from hence, at the mouth of the river Dee, is New Aberdeen, the county town, a neat, populous, and flourishing place, adorned with churches, hospitals, a fine wharf, a custom-house, and many stately edifices built of hewn stone. The streets are large and well paved; the private houses lofty, and well finished, provided with gardens and orchards, which appear intermingled with the buildings, and at a distance give it the air of a city.

MEARNS, or KINCARDINSHIRE, situated south of Aberdeenshire, is a fertile county. The principal place is Stonehive, the seat of the county courts, a small town with a commodious haven, and enjoys a good salmon fishery. Kincardin, another considerable place, stands on the river Dee, and gives the title of earl to a branch of the family of Bruce. Cowy is an ancient borough, greatly decayed, and remarkable for nothing but the ruins of a castle, said to have been built by king Malcolm Kenmore; and Foudon, or Mearns, is a small town, the seat of a presbytery, and, before the reformation, famous for the reliques of St. Palladius, who was sent over to Scotland in the fifth century by pope Celestine, to enlighten the Scots, and confute the Pelagians.

FORFARSHIRE, to the south-west of Kincardineshire, produces wood, minerals, cattle, and game.

The county-town, Forfar, bestows its name upon the shire, and gave the title of earl to a branch of the noble family of Douglas, which title was extinguished at the death of the last earl, a gallant youth, who lost his life in the battle of Dumblaine. The town, though inconsiderable, is a royal borough, and seat of a presbytery. The most flourishing town of this county is Dundee, anciently called Alutum and Taodunum, the birth-place of the historian Hector Boethius. It is situated at the foot of a hill, on the north side of the Tay, not far from that river's influx into the ocean. Dundee is a royal borough, and seat of a presbytery, handsomely built, and inferior to few towns in Scotland, in strength, situation and commerce.

CLACKMAMAN, a very small county, is fertile, but contains only one place of note, viz. Alos, on the Forth or Frith, a sea-port of tolerable trade.

FIFESHIRE, a peninsula between the Forth of Firth and the Tay, is tolerably fertile. The principal place is Coupar of Fife, the county town, situated on the river Eden; but the most celebrated place is the city of St. Andrew's. Hither the bones of St. Andrew are said to have been brought from Patras, a town of Peloponnesus, in the fourth century, by Regulus, a Grecian monk, renowned for his piety and learning. St. Andrew's was also the principal seat of the Culdees, who directed all sacred institutions from the first conversion of the Picts to Christianity, and has always been famous for its university.

The island of May, about a mile and a half in circumference, lies seven miles from the coast of Fife, almost opposite to the rock of Bass. It formerly belonged to the priory of Pittenweem, and was dedicated

to St. Adrian, supposed to have been martyred in this place by the Danes; and hither, in times of Popish superstition, barren women used to come and worship at his shrine, in hopes of being cured of their sterility. Here are a tower and light house, built by a Mr. Cunningham, to whom king Charles I. granted the island in fee, with power to exact two pence per ton from every ship that passes, for the maintenance of the light-house.

STIRLINGSHIRE is a pleasant fertile county, situated to the south of Perthshire.

Stirling, the capital of the county, which derives its name from Ster, a Saxon word, signifying hill, and Lin water, was antiently called Binobara, of the same signification in the Scottish language. The town stands about 30 miles from Edinburgh, on the descent of a hill, the top of which is crowned with a stately old castle, of which the earls of Mar were formerly hereditary castellans, kept in repair and garrisoned by the government. The town is enclosed with a wall, except towards the north, where the part of a fosse is supplied by the river Forth, over which the inhabitants have built a stone bridge, consisting of four stately arches, and secured with an iron gate.

DUMBARTONSHIRE, to the north of the Firth of Clyde, is a barren county. The lake called Lochlomond is a great curiosity, being supplied by subterraneous springs and rivulets, surrounded with huge mountains, extending 25 miles in length, and in some places five miles in breadth, incredibly deep in every part, interspersed with 24 verdant isles, some of which are stocked with red deer, and inhabited.

Dumbarton, the county town, which bestows its name upon the shire, is a small considerable royal borough, situated near the conflux of the Clyde and Leven; and at present remarkable for nothing but its castle, which is very large, and formed on a very singular construction. It is a steep rock, rising up into two points, and every where inaccessible, except by a very narrow passage or entry, fortified with a strong wall and rampart. Within this wall is the guard-house, with lodgings for the officers; and from hence a long flight of stone steps ascends to the upper part of the castle, where there are several batteries mounted with cannon.

RENFREWSHIRE, east of Dumbartonshire, from which it is separated by the river Clyde, is tolerably fertile, and hath many opulent inhabitants. The principal town is Renfrew, an inconsiderable place, which yields greatly in point of importance to the village of Paisley.

LANERKSHIRE, to the south-west of Edinburghshire, is divided into two districts, viz. the shire of Lanerk, and the barony of Glasgow. The soil is diversified, being in some places barren, and in others fertile. The principal place is the large, elegant and populous city of Glasgow. It stands on the descent of an eminence near the Clyde, over which it has a handsome stone bridge of seven arches. The streets are regular and well paved, the houses lofty and built of stone, the churches elegant, and the university a noble and beautiful foundation. The people are industrious, and carry on great commerce; and the whole place has the appearance of opulence.

LINLITHGOWSHIRE, a small county to the south of Stirlingshire, is very pleasant, and tolerably fertile. Linlithgow, the chief town, is a neat place, the seat of a presbytery, and a royal borough.

EDINBURGHSHIRE, or WEST LOTHIAN, to the south of the Forth of Firth, abounds in minerals, is extremely fertile, well cultivated, and pleasant. The sheriffalty of this shire is in the gift of the crown, and Edinburgh is a county of itself. The city, which is the capital of Scotland, was formerly the regal residence. It consists principally of one street, with lanes running from it, the ground rising gradually from Holyrood-house, to the Canongate-head, which is the suburb, and from thence to the castle, which is the highest part of the city.

city. The principal street besides this is called Cowgate, and is on the south side of the other; and from this several lanes run up the hill towards the university and Herriot's hospital. The city is above a mile in length, but no where above half a mile in breadth. The houses are built of stone, six or seven stories high; and near the parliament close they are 14 stories high. The whole is walled on every side, but the north, where a lake circumscribes it. The castle is remarkably strong. The council-house and sessions-house are convenient fabrics for the purposes for which they are designed. The high church, which was the cathedral, is now divided into four churches; besides which there are seven other churches, and a chapel in the castle. The palace called Holyrood house was formerly an abbey, and is a handsome, convenient structure. This city is governed by a lord provost, four bailiffs, and a common council.

Leith, situated on the Forth, two miles north of Edinburgh, is not only the port, but may, with justice, be termed the warehouse of Edinburgh. It is a flourishing handsome town, intersected by the river Leith; over which there is a stone bridge, which connects the two parts.

HADDINGTONSHIRE, to the north-east of Edinburghshire, is a very fertile, and well cultivated county. The shire town, situated on the river Tyne, over which it has a stone bridge with three arches, is a royal borough, large, well built, and the seat of a presbytery.

Dunbar, a royal borough, at the mouth of the Firth, is the seat of a presbytery. It is a neat small town, has a good market, a secure harbour, and a considerable trade.

BERWICKSHIRE, adjoining to England, situated to the south east of Edinburghshire, is a rough, moorish county, irregularly diversified with woods and vallies. Berwick town being now annexed to England, the principal Scotch town of this county is Duns, a large populous barony in the center of the shire, being the seat of a presbytery, and having a castle for its defence.

AIRESHIRE, to the east of the Firth of Clyde, is a level, pleasant, and tolerable fertile county. Aire, the county town, is an ancient royal borough, commodiously situated for trade, and composed of the Old and new Towns, which are joined together by a bridge of four arches.

TWEEDALESHIRE, or PEBLES, situated to the south of Edinburghshire, produces some grain, is particularly fertile in pasturage, well watered with rivers, and contains several lakes. The only town worthy of notice is Pebles, a small pleasant place on the Tweed, over which it has a stone bridge of five arches.

ROXBURGHSHIRE, or TIVIODALE, to the south of Berwickshire, is, though rather barren, a well inhabited county. Roxborough, the county town, was formerly a flourishing place, but is now greatly reduced, by reason that its royalty was removed to Jedburgh, situated at the confluence of the Tefy and Ted.

SELKIRKSHIRE, to the west of Roxburghshire, is a hilly country; but yields good pasture, and abounds in cattle. The chief town is Selkirk, a royal borough on the Eltrick, famous for its manufacture of boots and shoes.

DUMFRIESSHIRE, to the south-west of Selkirkshire, is a hilly county, but produces cattle in abundance. Annan, a royal borough and sea-port, was once the chief town, but having gone to decay, Dumfries is at present to be considered as such. This town, which may be stiled the capital of the south-west part of Scotland, is a large flourishing royal borough, situated at the mouth of the Nid, at the distance of 64 miles from Edinburgh. The houses are well built and commodious, the streets are open and spacious. The town is adorned with an old castle in tolerable repair, four gates, a stately church, an exchange for the merchants, a tolbooth, a large market-place with a curi-

ous cross, and a noble bridge of free-stone over the river, consisting of 13 large arches, with a gate in the middle, as a boundary between the shire of Dumfries, and the stewartry of Galloway. Dumfries gives the title of earl to the chief of the family of Crichton, is the seat of a presbytery and provincial synod, and carries on a considerable share of commerce.

WIGTOWNSHIRE, to the south of Aireshire, abounds in cattle, horses, &c. The capital of the shire is Wigtown, which bestows the title of earl upon the chief of the Flemings. It is a royal borough, where the sheriff holds his court, and the seat of a presbytery, situated near the mouth of a river, in the bay of the same name, 11 miles in breadth, at the distance of 88 miles from Edinburgh. It has the advantage of a tolerable harbour, and is well situated for trade; but this is entirely neglected, and the town is very poor, and thinly inhabited.

The length and breadth of the counties of North Britain may be known by inspecting the following table.

Counties.	Leng.	Bred.	Counties.	Leng.	Bred.
Caithness	35	20	Fifeshire	40	17
Sutherland	80	40	Stirlingshire	20	12
Rofs	80	78	Dumbartonshire	24	20
Inverness	60	55	Renfrewshire	20	13
Nairn	20	14	Lanerkshire	40	24
Elgin	24	20	Linleighgowshire	14	13
Argyleshire	90	70	Edinburghshire	21	16
Perthshire	70	60	Haddingtonshire	20	12
Bamffshire	32	13	Berwickshire	24	16
Aberdeenshire	50	36	Aireshire	64	36
Mearns	27	20	Tweedaleshire	25	18
Forfarshire	29	16	Roxburghshire	30	15
Clackmaman	8	5	Selkirkshire	20	12
			Dumfrieshire	50	34
			Wigtownshire	24	23

SECTION VII.

Antiquities, &c. of Great Britain.

THE most celebrated antiquity in Great Britain is the famous Druid temple, about six miles from Salisbury, called Stonehenge, which consists of two circles, and two ovals, respectively concentric. The stones that compose it are really stupendous; their height, breadth, and thickness are enormous; and to see so many of them placed together in a nice and critical figure with exactness; to consider, as it were, not a pillar of one stone, but a whole wall, a side and end, of a temple, of one stone; to view them curiously creates such an astonishment in the mind as words cannot express.

Near this amazing work of antiquity are a great number of elevations, something resembling the form of a bell, called burrows or barrows. These are sepulchral tumuli, wherein the antient Britons deposited the ashes of their dead, and raised in memory of soldiers slain there.

Monuments of the same kind as that of Stonehenge are to be met with in many parts of England, as well as in Scotland.

The Roman antiquities in Great Britain consist of altars, monumental inscriptions, walls, and military ways, the principal of the latter being one that began at Dover, and passed through the whole island to Cardigan in Wales. The chief Roman wall is that called the wall of Severus, or Picts wall, which runs through Northumberland and Cumberland, beginning at Tynmouth and ending at Solway Firth, being about 80 miles in length. The Saxon antiquities consist of strong fortresses, and ecclesiastical edifices. The Danish are hardly discernible from the Saxon; and the Anglo-

Anglo-Norman remains exhibit noble specimens of Gothic architecture.

SECTION VIII.

CONCISE VIEW of the HISTORY of GREAT BRITAIN.

THIS island was originally named Albion, from its white cliffs; afterwards Britain, from its painted inhabitants. The southern parts received the name of England from the Anglo-Saxons; and the whole, after the union with Scotland, was termed Great Britain.

The antient Britons were known to the Phœnicians and Gauls, who traded with them, till the fertility of the country, and richness of the mines, induced the Romans to invade the island under Julius Cæsar. The Romans having conquered it retained the greatest part under several successive emperors; but the empire itself at length beginning to decline, the Roman forces were drawn from Britain to defend Italy from the incursions of the northern barbarians. The Britons unprotected by the Romans, being incapable of defending themselves from the Scots and Picts, called in the Saxons to their assistance. These strangers, having defeated the foes of the Britons, became themselves their greatest enemies, drove them up into the mountains of Wales, possessed themselves of the most fertile parts of the country, and divided it into seven kingdoms, called the Heptarchy. England was afterwards invaded and conquered by the Danes, who kept it a few years, when it returned again beneath the Saxon government, and so remained till it was invaded and conquered by William, duke of Normandy, who afterwards reigned by the title of

William I. commonly called the Conqueror. This successful prince was a descendant of Canute the Dane, born 1027; paid a visit to Edward the Confessor, in England, 1051; betrothed his daughter to Harold II. 1058; made a claim of the crown of England, 1066; invaded England, landing at Prevensay, in Sussex, the same year; defeated the English troops at Hastings, on October 14, 1066, when Harold was slain, and William assumed the title of Conqueror. He was crowned at Westminster, December 29, 1066; invaded Scotland, 1072; subverted the English constitution, 1074; refused to swear fealty to the Pope for the crown of England; wounded by his son, Robert, at Gerberot, in Normandy, 1079; invaded France, 1086; soon after fell from his horse, and contracted a rupture; died at Hermentrude, near Rouen, in Normandy, 1087; was buried at Caen, and succeeded in Normandy by his eldest son, Robert, and in England, by his second son

William II. born in 1057; crowned at Westminster, September 27, 1087; invaded Normandy with success, 1090; killed by accident, as he was hunting in the New Forest, by Sir Walter Tyrrel, August 1100, aged 43; was buried at Winchester, and succeeded by his brother

Henry I. surnamed Beauclerc, born in 1068; crowned, August 5, 1100; married Matilda, daughter of Malcolm, king of Scots, November 11 following; made peace with his brother, Robert, 1101; invaded Normandy, 1105; attacked by Robert, whom he defeated, and took prisoner, 1107, and sent to England; betrothed his daughter Maude to the emperor of Germany, 1109; challenged by Lewis of France, 1117; his eldest son, and two others of his children, shipwrecked and lost, with 180 of his nobility, in coming from Normandy, 1120; in quiet possession of Normandy, 1129; surfeited himself with eating lampreys, at Lyons, near Rouen, in Normandy, and died December 1, 1135, aged 68. His body was brought over to England, and buried at Reading. He was succeeded by his nephew, Stephen, third son of his sister Adela, by the earl of Blois. He was greatly interrupted in the principal part of his reign by

Maude, daughter of Henry I. born 1101; married to Henry IV. emperor of Germany, 1109; had the English nobility swear fealty to her, 1126; buried her husband 1127; married Jeffery Plantagenet, earl of Anjou, 1130; set aside from the English succession, by Stephen, 1135; landed in England, and claimed her right to the crown, September, 1139; crowned, but soon after defeated at Winchester, 1141; escaped to Gloucester on a bier; fled from a window of Oxford-castle, by a rope, in the winter of 1142; retired to France, 1147; returned to England, and concluded a peace with Stephen, 1153; and died abroad, September 10, 1167.

Stephen was born 1105; crowned December 2, 1135; taken prisoner at Lincoln, by the earl of Gloucester, Maude's half-brother, February, 1141, and put in irons at Bristol, but released in exchange for the earl of Gloucester, taken at Winchester; made peace with Henry, Maude's son, 1153; died of the piles, October 25, 1154, aged 50; was buried at Faversham, and succeeded by Henry, son of Maude. Matilda, Stephen's queen, was crowned on Easter-day, 1136; died May 3, 1151, at Henningham-castle, Essex, and was buried in a monastery at Faversham.

Henry II. surnamed Plantagenet, grandson of Henry I. born in 1133, began his reign in 1154; arrived in England, December 8, and was, with his queen, Eleanor, crowned at London, the 19th of the same month; crowned at Lincoln, 1158; again at Worcester, 1159; quelled the rebellion at Maine, 1166; had his son Henry crowned king of England, 1170; invaded Ireland, and conquered it, 1172; imprisoned his queen on account of Rosamond, his concubine, 1173; did penance at Becket's tomb, July 8, 1174; took the king of Scotland prisoner, and obliged him to give up the independency of his crown, 1175; named his son, John, king of Ireland, 1176; had, the same year, an amour with Alice, of France, the intended princess of his son Richard, 1181; lost his eldest son, Henry, June 11, 1183; his son Richard rebelled, 1185; had his son Jeffery trodden under foot, and killed, at a tournament at Paris, 1186; made a convention with Philip, of France, to go to the holy war, 1188; died with grief at the altar, cursing his sons, July 6, 1189, aged 61; was buried at Fonteverand, in France, and succeeded by his son Richard. Eleanor, queen to king Henry II. died, 1204.

Richard I. surnamed Cœur de Lion, was born at Oxford, 1157; crowned at London, September 3, 1189; set out on the crusade, and joined Philip of France on the plains of Vezelay, June 29, 1190; took Messina the latter end of the year; married Berengera, daughter of the king of Navarre, May 12, 1191; defeated the Cyprians, 1191; taken prisoner near Vienna, on his return home, by the duke of Austria, December 20, 1192; ransomed for 40,000l. and set at liberty 1193; returned to England March 20 following; wounded with an arrow, at Chaluz, near Limoges, in Normandy, and died, April 6, 1199; was buried at Fonteverand, and succeeded by his brother

John, the youngest son of Henry II. born at Oxford, December 24, 1166; was crowned, May 27, 1199; divorced his wife Avifa, and married Isabella, daughter of the Count of Angoulême; went to Paris 1200; besieged the castle of Mirabel, and took his nephew, Arthur, prisoner, August 1, 1202, whom he murdered; the same year he was expelled the French provinces, and re-crowned in England; imprisoned his queen, and banished all the clergy in his dominions, 1208; was excommunicated, 1209; landed in Ireland, June 8, 1210; surrendered his crown to Pandolf the Pope's legate, May 25, 1213; absolved, July 20 following; obliged, by his barons, to confirm Magna Charta, 1215; lost his treasure and baggage in passing the marshes of Lynn, 1216; died at Newark, October 18, 1216; was buried at Worcester, and succeeded by his son

Henry III. born October 1, 1207; crowned at Gloucester, October 28, 1216; received homage from Alexander,

ander, of Scotland, at Northampton, 1218; crowned again at Westminster, after Christmas, 1219; married Eleanor, daughter of the Count of Provence, January 14, 1236; pledged his crown and jewels for money, when he married his daughter Margaret to the king of Scots, 1242; obliged, by his nobles, to resign the power of a sovereign, and sell Normandy and Anjou to the French, 1258; shut himself up in the Tower of London for fear of his nobles, 1261; taken prisoner at Lewes, May 14, 1264; wounded at the battle of Evesham, 1265; died at St. Edmundsbury, in Suffolk, November 16, 1272; and was succeeded by his son Edward.

Eleanor, Henry III's queen, died in a monastery at Amersbury, where she had retired, about 1292.

Edward I. born June 16, 1239; married Eleanor, princess of Castile, 1253; succeeded to the crown, November 16, 1272; wounded in the Holy Land with a poisoned dagger; recovered, and landed in England, July 25, 1274; crowned at Westminster, August 19 following, with his queen; went to France, and did homage to the French king, 1279; reduced the Welch princes, 1282; Eleanor, his queen, died of a fever, on her journey to Scotland, at Horneby, in Lincolnshire, 1296, and was conveyed to Westminster (when elegant stone crosses were erected at each place where the corpse rested); married Margaret, sister to the king of France, September 12, 1299; conquered Scotland, 1299, and brought to England their coronation chair, &c. died of a flux at Burch upon the Sands, in Cumberland, July 7, 1307; was buried at Westminster; and, on May 2, 1774, some antiquarians, by consent of the chapter, examined his tomb, when they found his corpse uncorrupted, though buried 466 years. He was succeeded by his 4th son,

Edward II. born at Caernarvon, in Wales, April 25, 1284. He was the first king of England's eldest son that had the title of Prince of Wales, which he received in 1300. He ascended the throne July 7, 1307; married Isabel, daughter of the French king, 1308; obliged, by the barons, to invest the government of the kingdom in 21 persons, March 16, 1310; went on a pilgrimage to Boulogne, December 13, 1313; declared his queen and all her adherents enemies to the kingdom, 1325; dethroned, January 13, 1327; was succeeded by his eldest son, Edward III. and murdered at Berkeley-castle, September 21 following. He was buried at Gloucester.

Edward III. was born at Windsor, November 15, 1312; succeeded to the crown January 10, 1327; crowned at Westminster, February 1 following; married Philippa, daughter of the earl of Hainault, January 24, 1327; claimed the crown of France, 1329; confined his mother Isabel, and caused her favourite Mortimer to be hanged, November 29, 1330; defeated the Scots at Halidown, 1333; invaded France, and pawned his crown and jewels for 50,000 florins, 1340; quartered the arms of England and France, 1341; made the first distinction between lords and commons, 1342; defeated the French at Cressy, when 30,000 were slain, among whom was the king of Bohemia, 1346. The queen took the king of Scotland prisoner, and 20,000 Scots slain, the same year. Calais besieged and taken, August 16, 1347; and St. Stephen's chapel, now the house of commons, built, 1347. The order of the Garter instituted, 1349; the French defeated at Poitiers; their king and prince taken, and the king of Navarre imprisoned 1356; the king of Scotland ransomed for 100,000l. 1357; in which year Edward lost his eldest son, Edward the Black Prince, of a consumption. The king of France ransomed for 300,000l. 1359. Four kings entertained at the lord mayor's feast, viz. England, France, Scotland, and Cyprus, 1364. Philippa, his queen, died at Windsor, August 16, 1369, and was buried at Westminster. Edward died at Richmond, June 21, 1377, and was succeeded by his grandson, Richard II. son to

Edward, the Black Prince, who was born June 15, 1330; created duke of Cornwall, 1337; the first in England that bore the title of duke; created prince of Wales, 1344; brought the king of France prisoner to England, from the battle of Poitiers, September 19, 1356; went to Castile, 1367; died of a consumption, June 8, 1376, and was buried at Canterbury.

John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, fourth son of Edward III. was born 1340; married Blanch, daughter of the duke of Lancaster, 1359; by whom he became possessed of that dukedom and title: she died 1369; and, in 1372, he married the daughter of the king of Castile and Leon, and took that title. In 1396 he married a third wife, Catherine Swinford, from whom descended Henry VII. He died 1399; was buried in St. Paul's, London; and was succeeded by his son

Richard II. born at Bourdeaux, January 6, 1367; had two royal godfathers, the kings of Navarre and Majorca; made guardian of the kingdom, August 30, 1372; created prince of Wales, 1376; succeeded his grandfather, Edward III. June 21, 1377, when not seven years old. The rebellion of Wat Tyler and Jack Straw, 1378. Married Anne, sister to the emperor of Germany, and king of Bohemia, January 1382, who died without issue, at Shene, and was buried in Westminster-abbey, August 3, 1395. Married Isabella, daughter to the king of France, 1396. He was taken prisoner by Henry, duke of Lancaster, his cousin, and sent to the Tower, September 1, 1399; resigned his crown, September 29 following; and was succeeded by Henry IV. Richard was murdered in Pomfret-castle, January 1400, and buried at Langley, but removed to Westminster.

Thomas, duke of Gloucester, uncle to Richard II. was smothered, February 28, 1397.

Henry IV. duke of Lancaster, grandson of Edward III. was born 1367; married Mary, the daughter of the earl of Hereford, who died 1394, before he obtained the crown; fought with the duke of Norfolk, 1397, and banished; returned to England in arms against Richard II. who resigned his crown; and Henry was crowned October 13, 1399, when he instituted the order of the Bath, and created 47 knights; conspired against, January, 1400; defeated by the Welch, 1402; married a second queen, Joan of Navarre, widow of the duke of Bretagne, 1403; who was crowned with great magnificence the 26th of January following, and died in 1437. In 1403 began the rebellion of the Percies, and suppressed July following. He died of an apoplexy, in Westminster, March 20, 1413; was buried at Canterbury, and succeeded by his son

Henry V. who was born in 1388, and, when prince of Wales, was committed to prison for affronting one of the judges, 1412; crowned at Westminster April 9, 1413; claimed the crown of France, 1414; gained the victory of Agincourt, October, 24, 1415; pledged his regalia for 20,000l. to push his conquests, 1416. The emperor Sigismund paid a visit to Henry, and was installed knight of the Garter, 1416. Henry invaded Normandy with an army of 26,600 men, 1417; declared regent, and married Catherine, of France, June 3, 1420; who was crowned at Westminster the February following; out-lived Henry; and was married afterwards to Owen Tudor, grandfather to Henry VII. Henry died of a pleurisy, at Rouen, August 31, 1422, aged 34, was buried at Westminster, and succeeded by

Henry VI. who was born at Windsor, December 6, 1421; ascended the throne, August 31, 1422; proclaimed king of France the same year; crowned at Westminster, November 6, 1429; crowned at Paris, December 17, 1430; married to Margaret, daughter of the duke of Anjou, April 12, 1445. Jack Cade's insurrection, 1446. Henry taken prisoner at St. Alban's, 1455; but regained his liberty, 1461; and deposed, March 5 following, by his fourth cousin, Edward IV. fled into Scotland, and taken prisoner in Lancashire, 1463; restored to his throne, 1470; taken prisoner again by Edward, April 11, 1471. Queen

Margaret

Margaret and her son taken prisoners at Tewksbury, by Edward, May 4. The prince was killed in cold blood, May 21; and Henry murdered in the Tower, June 20 following, and buried at Chertsey, aged 49.

Humphrey, duke of Gloucester, fourth son of Henry IV. was strangled by order of his nephew, Henry VI. and buried at St. Alban's, 1447.

Edward IV. was born at Rouen, April 29, 1443; descended from the third son of Edward III. elected king, March 5, 1461; and, before his coronation, was obliged to take the field, and fight the battle of Towton, when 35,781 fell, and not one prisoner taken but the earl of Devonshire, March 13; was crowned at Westminster, June 28, 1461; set publicly with the judges in Westminster-hall, 1464; married lady Elizabeth Grey, widow of Sir John Grey, of Groby, May 1, 1464, who was crowned the 26th following. Edward was taken prisoner by the earl of Warwick, in Yorkshire, from whence he was brought to London, with his legs tied under the horse's belly, 1467; escaped, and was expelled the kingdom, 1470; returned, March 25, 1471, and restored, and caused his brother, the duke of Clarence, who had joined the earl of Warwick, to be drowned in a butt of Malmsey wine, 1478; died of an ague at Westminster, April 9, 1483; and was buried at Windsor. He was succeeded by his infant son,

Edward V. who was born November 4, 1470; conveyed to the Tower, May 1483; deposed, June 20 following, and, with the duke of York, his brother, smothered soon after by their uncle, who succeeded him.

Richard III. duke of Gloucester, brother to Edward IV. was born 1453; took prince Edward, son of Henry VI. prisoner at Tewksbury, and helped to murder him in cold blood, (whose widow he afterwards married,) 1471; drowned the duke of Clarence, brother to Edward IV. in a butt of Malmsey wine, 1478; made protector of England, May 27, 1483; elected king, June 20, and crowned July 6 following; ditto at York, September 8; slain in battle, at Bosworth, August 22, 1485, aged 32; was buried at Leicester, and succeeded by

Henry VII. who was born 1455; landed at Milford-haven, 1485; defeated Richard III. in Bosworth-field, and was elected king 1485; crowned October 30, 1485; married Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV. January 18, 1486, who was crowned the November following; defeated Lambert Simnel, the impostor, June 16, 1487; received of the French king, as a compromise for his claim on that crown, 186,250*l.* besides 25,000 crowns yearly, 1492. Prince Arthur, his eldest son, died April 2, 1502. Queen Elizabeth died in child-bed, February 11 following, and was buried at Westminster. He married his daughter, Margaret, to James IV. of Scotland, 1504; died of a consumption, at Richmond, April 22, 1509, aged 51; was buried at Westminster, and succeeded by his son

Henry VIII. who was born June 28, 1491; married Catherine, Infanta of Spain, widow of his brother Arthur, June 3, 1509; crowned June 24 following; received the title of Defender of the Faith, 1521; styled head of the church, 1531; divorced queen Catherine, and married Anne Bullen, May 23, 1533; Anne crowned June 1, 1533. He was excommunicated by pope Paul, August 30, 1535. Catherine, his first queen, died at Kimbolton, January 8, 1536, aged 50. He put Anne, his second queen, to death, and married Jane Seymour, May 20, 1536, who died in child-bed, October, 12, 1537. He dissolved the religious foundations in England, 1539; married Anne of Cleves, January 6, 1540; divorced her, July 10, 1540; married Catherine Howard, his fifth wife, August 8 following, and beheaded her on Tower-hill, with lady Rochford, February 12, 1542; married Catherine Parr, his sixth wife, July 12, 1543. He died of a fever and an ulcerated leg, at Westminster, January 28, 1547; was buried at Windsor, and was succeeded by his only son,

Edward VI. who was born October 12, 1537; crowned, Sunday, February 20, 1547; died of a con-

sumption, at Greenwich, July 6, 1553; was buried at Westminster, and was succeeded, agreeable to his will, by his cousin,

Jane Gray, born 1537; proclaimed queen, July 9, 1553; deposed soon after, and sent to the Tower, where she, with lord Dudley, her husband, and her father, were beheaded, February 12, 1554, aged 17, by order of

Mary, who was born February 11, 1516; proclaimed, July 19, 1553, and crowned October 1 following; married Philip, of Spain, July 25, 1554; died of a dropsy, November 17, 1558; was buried at Westminster, and succeeded by her half-sister,

Elizabeth, who was born September 7, 1533; sent prisoner to the Tower, 1554; began to reign November 17, 1558; crowned at Westminster, January 15, 1559. Mary of Scots fled to England, May 16, 1568, and imprisoned in Tutbury castle, January 1569. Elizabeth relieved the Protestants in the Netherlands with about 200,000 crowns besides stores, 1569. A marriage proposed to the queen by the duke of Alençon, 1571, but finally rejected, 1581. Beheaded Mary of Scots, at Fotheringhay-castle, in Northamptonshire, February 8, 1587, aged 44. The Spanish armada destroyed, 1588. Tyrone's rebellion in Ireland, 1598. Essex, the queen's favourite, beheaded, February 25, 1602. The queen died at Richmond, March, 24, 1603; was buried at Westminster, and succeeded by the son of Mary, queen of Scots, then James VI. of Scotland.

James I. was born at Edinburgh, June 19, 1556; was crowned king of Scotland, July 22, 1567; married Ann, princess of Denmark, August 10, 1589; succeeded to the crown of England, March, 24, 1603; first styled king of Great Britain, 1604; arrived at London, May 7 following; lost his eldest son, Henry, prince of Wales, November 6, 1612, aged 18; married his daughter, Elizabeth, to the elector Palatine of the Rhine, 1612, from whom his present majesty, George III. is descended; went to Scotland, March, 4, 1617; returned, September 14, 1617; lost his queen, March 3, 1619; died of an ague, March 27, 1625; was buried at Westminster, and succeeded by

Charles I. who was born November 19, 1600; succeeded to the crown, March 27, 1625; married Henrietta, daughter of Henry IV. of France, the same year; crowned, February 2, 1626; crowned at Edinburgh, 1633; went to Scotland, August, 1641; returned, November 25 following; went to the house of Commons, and demanded the five members, January 1641-2; retired to York, March, 1642; raised his standard at Nottingham, August 25 following; travelled in the disguise of a servant, and put himself into the hands of the Scots, at Newark, May 5, 1646; sold by the Scots for 200,000*l.* August 8 following; seized by Col. Joice, at Holmby, June 3, 1647; escaped from Hampton-Court, and retreated to the Isle of Wight, July 29, 1648; close confined in Hurst-castle, December 1 following; removed to Windsor-castle, December 23, to St. James's house, January 19, 1649; brought to trial the next day; condemned the 27th; beheaded at Whitehall the 30th, aged 48; and buried in St. George's chapel, Windsor. His queen, Henrietta, died in France, August 10, 1669.

Oliver Cromwell was born at Huntingdon, April 25, 1599; chosen member of parliament for Huntingdon, 1628; made a colonel, 1643; went over to Ireland with his army, July, 1649; returned, May, 1650; made Protector for life, December 12, 1653; was near being killed by falling from a coach-box, October, 1654; elected king, but refused the title, May 8, 1657; died at Whitehall, September 3, 1658, and succeeded by his son

Richard Cromwell, who was proclaimed Protector September 4, 1658; deposed April 22, 1659; and died at Cheshunt, in Hertfordshire, July 12, 1712, aged 89.

Charles II. was born May 29, 1630; escaped from St. James's, April 23, 1648; landed in Scotland, 1650; crowned at Scone, January 1, 1651; defeated at the battle of Worcester, 1651; landed at Dover, May 29,

1660, and restored to his throne; crowned, April 13 1661; married Catherine, Infanta of Portugal, May 21, 1662; and accepted the city freedom, December 18, 1674; died, February 6, 1685; aged 54, of an apoplexy; was buried at Westminster, and succeeded by his brother James. Catherine, his queen, died December 21, 1705.

James II. was born October 15, 1633; married Anne Hyde, September 1660, who died 1671; married the princess of Modena, November 21, 1673; succeeded to the throne, February 6, 1685. Monmouth, natural son to Charles II. landed in England, June 11, 1685; proclaimed king at Taunton, in Somersetshire, June 20 following; defeated, near Bridgewater, July 5; beheaded on Tower hill, July 15 following, aged 35. James's queen had a son born June 10, 1688; fled from his palace, December 12, 1688; was seized soon after at Feversham, and brought back to Whitehall; left England, December 23, following; landed at Kinsale, in Ireland, March 12, 1689; returned to France, July, 1690; died at St. Germain's, August 6, 1701.

William III. prince of Orange, was born November 4, 1650; created Stadtholder, July 3, 1672; married the princess Mary, of England, November 4, 1677; landed at Torbay, in England, with an army, November 4, 1688; crowned, with his queen, April 11, 1689; landed at Carrickfergus, June 14, 1690, and defeated James II. at the battle of Boyne, July 1 following; plot laid for assassinating him, February 1696; fell from his horse, and broke his collar-bone, February 21, 1702; died March 8, aged 51; was buried April 12 following, and left his sister-in-law, Anne, his successor to the crown.

Mary, William's queen, was born April 30, 1662; proclaimed (with her husband) queen regent of England, February 13, 1689; died of the small-pox, December 28, 1694, aged 32, and was buried at Westminster.

Anne was born February 6, 1665; married to prince George, of Denmark, July 28, 1683, by whom she had 13 children, all of whom died young. She came to the crown, March 1, 1702; crowned, April 23 following; lost her son, George, duke of Gloucester, by a fever, July 29, 1700, aged 11; lost her husband, who died of an asthma and dropsy, October 28, 1708, aged 55. The queen died of an apoplexy, August 1, 1714, aged 49; was buried at Westminster; and succeeded by

George I. elector of Hanover, duke of Brunswick-Lunenbug, who was born May 28, 1660; created duke of Cambridge, &c. October 5, 1706. The princess Sophia, his queen, mother of George II. died, June 8, 1714, aged 83. He was proclaimed, August 1, 1714; landed at Greenwich, September 18 following; died in his journey to Hanover, at Osnaburg, Sunday, June 11, 1727, of a paralytic disorder, aged 67, and was succeeded by his eldest son,

George II. who was born October, 30, 1683; created prince of Wales, October 4, 1714; married the princess Wilhelmina Caroline Dorothea, of Brandenburg-Anspach, 1704; ascended the throne, June 11, 1727; lost his queen, of a mortification in her bowels, November 30, 1737, aged 54; suppressed a rebellion, 1745; died suddenly at Kensington, October 25, 1760, aged 77, and was succeeded by his grandson, George III.

Frederick Lewis, prince of Wales, son of George II. was born January 20, 1706; arrived in England, December 1729; married Augusta, princess of Saxe-Gotha, April 27, 1736; forbid the court the year following; died, March 20, 1751, aged 44. His princess died of a consumption, February 8, 1772, aged 52.

George III. eldest son of Frederick, late prince of Wales, was born June 4, 1738; created prince of Wales 1751; succeeded his grandfather, October 25,

1760; proclaimed the next day; married Charlotte Sophia, princess of Mecklenburgh-Strelitz, September 8, 1761, who was born May 19, 1744; and both were crowned, September 22, 1761. They have a numerous progeny.*

I R E L A N D.

SECTION I.

Situation, Boundaries, Extent, Climate, Soil, Productions, Rivers, Lakes, Mountains, Metals, Minerals, &c.

THIS island is situated between the 5th and 10th deg. of west long. and the 51st and 56th deg. north lat. It is bounded on the north by the Ducaliodonian Sea, on the west by the Atlantic, and on the east and south by St. George's Channel. It is about 300 miles in length, and 150 in breadth.

The climate of Ireland differs little from that of England, except that it is more moist, the seasons, in general, being much wetter. The air is clear and wholesome, except in those parts where there are bogs and fenny grounds: of these, however, few now remain, the greater part having, within the present century, been drained, and the ground cultivated. The soil, in general, is very fruitful both in corn and grass, especially the latter; for which reason they breed a prodigious number of sheep and black cattle. The productions of the boggy parts are various. Some are covered with grass, some with reeds and rushes, and others with little shrubs, interspersed with water. Some yield abundance of excellent turf; and others, called Bed Bogs, produce large firs, and other trees.

The productions of Ireland, with respect to animals and vegetables, are much the same as those of England. But they have a much greater quantity of game, inasmuch that hares, pheasants, &c. are sold in the public markets.

The whole country is well watered with rivers; among which the most remarkable are, the Shannon, Barrow, Neor, Suir, Bann, Lee, Liffey and Boyne. The Shannon is a much larger river than any in England, but not navigable above 50 miles. It runs, from north to south, upwards of 300 English miles, and, like all the rest, abounds with great plenty of excellent fish, particularly salmon and pike.

Here are likewise a great number of lakes, or, as they are usually called, loughs, many of which produce large quantities of excellent fish; and the great lake, called Neagh, is remarkable for its petrifying quality. But the bays, harbours, and creeks, which every where indent the coast, form the chief glory of Ireland, and render that country, beyond any other in Europe, the best fitted for foreign commerce.

Though Ireland cannot be called a mountainous country, yet there are several lofty chains, as well as single mountains, in the kingdom. Three words in the Irish language express the different degrees of their elevation, namely, Knock, Slieve and Bein. The first signifies a low hill, unconnected with any other eminence. A Slieve marks a craggy high mountain, gradually ascending, and continued in several ridges; and a Bein signifies a pinnacle, or mountain of the first magnitude, ending in a sharp or abrupt precipice. Some of these mountains contain in their bowels beds of ruins, minerals, coals, quarries of stone, slate and marble, with veins of iron, lead, and copper.

Some of the forests produce excellent timber, particularly oak, which is esteemed as good as any of the English growth, and equally serviceable for ship-building. The mines of Ireland are late discoveries. Some

* For an ample, impartial, and elegant account of the transactions of this country, we refer our readers to an excellent performance, entitled, "A New, Universal, and Impartial History of England, from the most remote period of genuine historical evidence to the present time." Containing an accurate chronological account of remarkable events; an entertaining recital of singular occurrences; and an impartial biographical narrative of the lives of eminent persons; in-

cluding, in the whole, all that is worthy of observation in the annals of the British empire. By George Frederick Raymond, Esq. This useful and entertaining work is embellished with above 100 superb copper-plates, admirably engraved from the designs of the most eminent masters; will make 60 numbers, forming an elegant volume in folio; and may be had (price 6d. each number) of C. COOKS, No. 17, Paternoster-Row.

A NEW
and Accurate
MAP
of
IRELAND,
Drawn
from the best Authorities,
by Tho: Bowen.

SCOTLAND

U.S.A.

ARRAN

Islas

Mull of Galloway

ST. GEORGE'S CHANNEL

IRISH SEA

ATLANTIC OCEAN

British Statute Miles

Longitude West from London

Engraved for B. ANKES'S New & Complete System of GEOGRAPHY Published by Royal Authority



(Prospective View of the CITY of DUBLIN, from Phoenix Park.)

contain silver and lead; others copper and iron. Quarries of slate are found in many parts. The coals that are dug at Kilkenny emit very little smoke; it contains a chrystalline stream which has no sediment. Those peculiarities, with the serenity of the air in that place, have given rise to the well-known proverb; "That Kilkenny contains fire without smoke; water without mud, and air without fog."

SECTION II.

Grand Divisions of Ireland, with a Description of each Division.

IRELAND is divided into four Provinces, which we shall describe in order.

ULSTER, the most northern province of Ireland, is in some parts mountainous, but, in general, fertile, and well watered. It contains the following counties:

The county of **DONEGAL** is, in general, very fertile, and the air clear and wholesome. The town of Donegal, which gives name to it, is a poor mean place; and the only thing in the whole county worthy of notice is the salt-water lake, or rather arm of the sea, called Lough-Swilly, which extends 18 miles in length, and is about five miles broad at its mouth. A thousand sail might ride in it with safety. There are many villages and gentlemen's seats on its banks, but no town or trade of any consequence.

The county of **LONDONDERRY**, or **COLERAIN**, is also tolerably fertile, being well watered by the river Bann.

Londonderry, or Derry, the capital of the county, and the see of a bishop, stands at the bottom of Lough-Foyle. It has a good port, to which ships of the greatest burthen have access, and a considerable trade. It is well fortified; and along the banks of the river are several castles, and a fort. Great quantities of salmon, salted and barrelled, are exported from hence to foreign parts.

Colerain is a handsome walled town, situated near the mouth of the river Bann; and, before the building of Londonderry, gave name to the county. Here is a valuable salmon fishery.

The county of **ANTRIM** consists chiefly of bogs and marshes; but those parts which are cultivated are tolerably fertile.

Belfast is the most considerable town in all this part of Ireland, for extent, wealth, trade, and number of inhabitants. The harbour below the town is commodious; and has a good depth of water. A considerable trade is carried on from hence to Scotland; particularly to Glasgow.

Carrickfergus is a populous town; walled and fortified, with an excellent harbour, and defended by a castle on a high rock. Here the assizes and quarter-sessions are held, not only for the town, but the county at large.

In this county is one of the greatest natural curiosities to be met with in Europe. It is called the Giant's Causeway, and is situated by the sea-side, about eight miles from Colerain. It is composed of pillars all of angular shapes, from three sides to eight. The eastern point, which joins to a rock, terminates in a perpendicular cliff, formed by the upright sides of the pillars, some of which are upwards of 33 feet in height. Each pillar consists of several joints or stones, lying one upon another, from six inches to about a foot in thickness; and what is very surprising, some of these joints are so convex, that their prominence are nearly quarters of spheres, round each of which is a ledge, which holds them together with the greatest firmness, every stone being concave on the other side, and fitting, in the exactest manner, the convexity of the upper part of that beneath it. The pillars are from one to two feet in diameter, and generally consist of about forty joints.

The county of **TYRONE** contains many mountains, which are very barren; but the vallies and low grounds are fruitful both in corn and pasture.

The principal town in this county is Omagh, but it does not contain any thing worthy of particular notice.

The county of **FERMANAUGH** is one of the most unwholesome counties in this province, the greatest part of it being taken up with bogs, and a large lake called Lough-Earne.

Inniskillin, the capital of the county, is situated on an island, and being an important pass, it is well fortified and garrisoned. It is chiefly remarkable for producing a regiment of its name in the war between king William and James II. in Ireland.

The county of **CAYN** is very boggy, notwithstanding which the air is far from being unhealthy. The town, which gives name to it, is very small and insignificant. But Kilmore, situated in this county, though a mean place, is a bishop's see.

The county of **MONAGHAN** is very mountainous, woody, and marshy; and the principal town, which gives name to it, doth not contain anything remarkable.

The county of **ARMAGH** is, in general, very fertile, the soil being esteemed the richest in Ireland; only there is a certain track in it called the Fews, which is hilly and barren.

Armagh, which gives name to the county, is the see of the primate of all Ireland.

Charlemont is a small neat town, situated on the river Blackwater, and received its name from a fort or mount, built by Charles Blount, lord Montjoy.

Lugarn is pleasantly situated on a gentle eminence, in a fertile and populous country, about two miles from, and commanding a prospect of, Lough-Neagh, one of the largest lakes in the kingdom. This town, from the similarity of its general figure, of the language, manners, and dispositions of its inhabitants, to those of the English, hath, for many years, acquired the name of Little England.

The county of **DOWN** is fertile; has a good air, and is populous.

Down-Patrick, the chief town of the county, is a bishop's see, erected, about the end of the 5th century, by St. Patrick. Besides the cathedral, here are several handsome public buildings, as the church, the sessions-house, two alms-houses, two schools, a market-house, and barracks for a troop of horse.

Newry stands near a river of the same name, over which it has two bridges. The town is a great thoroughfare, and in it a garrison is constantly kept.

Killeleagh is a small, but neat town; and had the honour of giving birth to that great naturalist and physician Sir Hans Sloane. Here is a handsome church, a castle, and barracks for a troop of dragoons.

Bangor has a considerable manufacture for linen yarn. Here are still seen the ruins of a very ancient abbey.

LEINSTER is, in general, well cultivated; has a good air and soil, and abounds in corn, cattle, fish, and fowl. Its principal rivers are the Boyne, Barrow, Liffey, Nuer, Slane, and Mor. The counties into which this province is divided are as follow:

DUBLIN, or **DEVELIN**. This county, except a mountainous track in the south part of it, is very populous and fertile, and abounds with all the necessaries of life. It far exceeds any other part of the kingdom, not only in populousness, culture, trade, and wealth, but in the politeness and ingenuity of its inhabitants.

Dublin, the capital of this county, and of the whole kingdom, is, in magnitude, and the number of inhabitants, the second city in the British dominions. It is built in the form of a square, about two miles and a half long, and nearly as much in breadth. It is situated about seven miles from the sea, at the bottom of a large and spacious bay, upon the river Liffey, which divides it almost into two equal parts, and is banked in thro' the principal part of the city, on both sides, which form spacious quays for the convenience of loading and unloading vessels. The increase of Dublin, within 30 years past, is incredible. In appearance it bears a great resemblance to London. The houses are of brick. The old streets are narrow and mean, but many of the new streets are as elegant as those of the metropolis of Great

Great Britain. Sackville street, otherwise called the Mall, is particularly noble. The houses are elegant, lofty, and uniformly built; and a gravel walk runs through the whole, at an equal distance from the sides.

The river Liffey, though navigable for vessels as far as the custom-house, is but small, when compared to the Thames at London. Over it are two handsome bridges of stone. A new street has been opened, leading from Essex bridge to the castle, where the lord lieutenant resides. The new exchange is an elegant structure of white stone, richly embellished with semi-columns of the Corinthian order, a cupola, and other ornaments.

The parliament-house is a very elegant and substantial edifice. The portico, in particular is, perhaps, without parallel. The internal parts have also many beauties; and the manner in which the building is lighted has been much admired. Near it is Trinity-College, which extends about 300 feet, and is built of Portland stone, in the finest taste. But one of the greatest and most laudable undertakings this age can boast of is the building of a stone wall, about the breadth of a moderate street, a proportionable height, and three miles in length, to confine the channel of the bay, and to shelter vessels in stormy weather.

Stevens-Green is a very extensive square, being one mile in circumference. It is partly laid out in gravel-walks, like St. James's Park, in which may be seen, in fine weather, a resort of as much gaiety and finery as in any of the public places in England. Many of the houses round the Green are very stately, but their beauties are greatly injured for want of uniformity. Near Stevens-Green are several new streets, the buildings of which are exceeding elegant.

The linen-hall was erected at the public expence, and opened in the year 1728, for the reception of such linen cloths as were brought to Dublin for sale, for which there are convenient apartments. It is entirely under the direction of the trustees for the encouragement of the linen-manufactory of Ireland, who are composed of the lord-chancellor, the primate, the archbishop of Dublin, and the principal part of the nobility and gentry. This national institution is productive of great advantages, by preventing many frauds, which otherwise would be committed in a capital branch of trade, by which many thousands are employed, and the kingdom greatly enriched.

The barracks are pleasantly situated on an eminence near the river. They consist of four large courts, in which are generally quartered four battalions of foot, and one regiment of horse: from hence the castle and city guards are relieved daily. These barracks are said to be the largest and most commodious of any in Europe.

Phoenix Park, which belongs to his majesty, is very superior to St. James's, being much more extensive, and commanding the most delightful prospects.

Dublin is the see of an archbishop, who has a handsome cathedral, and a chapter, consisting of a dean, chanter, chancellor, treasurer, two archdeacons, and 22 prebendaries. Here is a society, called the Dublin Society, which hath been of infinite benefit to the kingdom, by distributing premiums, to a very considerable amount, yearly, for encouraging and promoting husbandry, and other useful arts and manufactures.

The civil government of Dublin is by a lord-mayor, &c. the same as in London.

The provisions of this city are, in general, exceeding good, and at a reasonable price, more especially liquors. The best spirits may be had at half the price they sell for in London. Their wine is chiefly claret, the common price of which is 2s. per bottle; and the best the town affords may be had for 2s. 6d. But it is remarkable that, notwithstanding the general conveniencies here, they are defective of proper accommodations for travellers, there not being a place of public entertainment in the city, that deserves the name of an inn.

The rates of hackney coaches and chairs are fixed here, as in London, for the different distances, or set-downs, as they are called. But here are two sorts of carriages peculiar to the place. The one is called a poddy, which is nothing more than an old cast-off one; horse chaise, with a kind of stool fixed in the front, just before the seat, on which the driver sets just over the rump of the horse, and drives you from one part of the town to another, at stated rates, for a set-down. This is neither a very safe or easy vehicle; but it is convenient for single persons, the fare not being much more than half that of a coach. The other is called a chaise marine, and is little less than a common car with one horse. They are used not only in this city, but throughout the kingdom, for the conveyance of people on parties of pleasure, and for the carriage of goods and merchandize of every kind, hay, straw, corn, dung, turf, &c. When used for parties of pleasure, a mat is laid on the level part for the commonalty; and, for the genteeler sort, a bed is put on it.

In Dublin there are two theatres; but since an exclusive patent has been obtained, performances are rarely exhibited at more than one of the them at one time.

There is also the Rotunda, a place of polite resort resembling Ranelagh.

In this city are 18 parish churches, 8 chapels, 3 churches for French and 1 for Dutch Protestants, 7 presbyterian meeting-houses, one for methodists, 2 for quakers, and 16 Roman Catholic chapels. Here are likewise a royal hospital, like that at Chelsea, for invalids; a lying-in-hospital, with gardens, built and laid out in the finest taste; an hospital for lunatics, erected by the famous dean Swift; and several other charitable and useful foundations.

Louth is the smallest county in the whole kingdom; but it has a pleasant and healthy air, and is very fruitful in corn and grass.

Drogheda, the chief town in this county, is situated near the mouth of the Boyne, about 20 miles from Dublin. It is divided into two parts by the said river, over which there is a plain but convenient bridge.

Wicklow is a very mountainous county, but it has a clear and wholesome air; and the low lands are well cultivated. Between the mountains are some of those deep, dark vallies called glyns, which are very beautiful and picturesque, together with some grand and astonishing water-falls. The most remarkable among the latter is that called the Fall of Powerscourt, which, from the peculiarity of its situation, its prodigious height, and singular beauty, well deserves the notice of a traveller. The water falls at least 300 feet, of which 200 are visible on the plain below.

Wicklow, which gives name to the county, is remarkable for producing the best ale in the kingdom. It has barracks for three companies of foot, and a kind of castle and haven at the mouth of the river Leitrim; but most of its trade consists in carrying provisions in small vessels to Dublin.

The county of Wexford is situated to the south of Wicklow. The air is good, but the soil various. In some places it is coarse and poor, but in others it is fruitful both in corn and grass.

Wexford, the capital of the county, is a large ancient town, situated at the mouth of the Slane. Here is a very good harbour for vessels of considerable burthen, and barracks for two companies of foot, with a very ancient castle.

Longford is a pleasant county, and, in general, tolerably fertile; but some parts of it are very boggy.

Longford is the capital of the county, and, besides a castle, has barracks for a troop of horse.

EAST-MEATH is a very fertile county, abounding in corn, pasture, and herds of cattle. Anciently it had petty kings, by whom it was governed.

Trim, the county town, is situated on the Boyne; but hath not any thing remarkable, except barracks for a troop of horse.

WEST-MEATH contains a great many rivers, lakes, and bogs; but where the land is free from these it is abundantly fertile.

Mullingar, the chief town, is small, but very compact, and contains barracks for a troop of horse.

Athlone is a tolerable good town, situated on the Shannon, and has a castle and garrison.

KING'S-COUNTY (which takes its name from king Philip of Spain, husband to queen Mary) was formerly full of bogs; but it is now well drained and cultivated.

Philip's-Town, or King's Town, the capital of the county, had formerly a castle; but it hath not at present any thing remarkable, except barracks for a company of foot.

QUEEN'S-COUNTY was antiently full of bogs and woods; but it is now tolerably well enclosed, cultivated, and inhabited.

Maryborough, or Queen's Town, the capital of the county, received its name from queen Mary, wife of Philip of Spain. It has barracks for a troop of horse.

KILKENNY is one of the most healthful, pleasant, and populous counties of Ireland. It is divided, as it were, into two parts, by the river Neor, or Nura, which has its source from those lofty mountains called the Slieubloom, or Blandine-hills.

Kilkenny, the capital, took its name from the cell or church of Conic, who was an eminent hermit in this county. It is the seat of a bishop, and is divided into the English and Irish towns. The former is by far the most considerable, the other being only a kind of suburbs. Both together make one of the largest, most wealthy, populous, and trading towns in the kingdom. Here are barracks for a troop of horse and four companies of foot, and a well endowed free-school, called the college. Most of the streets are paved with a very good sort of black marble, (of which they have large quarries near the town,) which takes a fine polish, and is beautifully intermixed with white granite.

KILDARE county is situated to the south of East Meath, and is, in general, very rich and fertile.

Kildare, the capital, is the see of a bishop, who has precedence of all the Irish bishops except that of Meath. In the neighbourhood is a plain, called the Currough, admirably adapted for the purpose of racing.

CARLOW county is chiefly situated between the rivers Barrow and Slane. It enjoys a wholesome air, and produces good corn and grass.

Carlow, the county town, stands on the Barrow, and contains barracks for a troop of horse, with an antient castle.

MUNSTER was a petty kingdom of itself, before the English invaded and conquered Ireland. The air is temperate and healthful. As to the soil, the plains and vallies, where properly cultivated, are fruitful both in corn and grass; but the mountains are bleak and barren. Great numbers of cattle are fed here; and it is well supplied with fish, especially cod and herrings. The counties contained in this province are as follow:

The county of **CORK** is the largest in the kingdom. Though a considerable part of it is boggy, mountainous, and barren, yet, by the industry of the inhabitants, it is pretty well cultivated and improved, and contains several towns and harbours.

Cork is much the largest and most populous city in the kingdom, next to the capital. It is encompassed not only by walls, but also by the channel of the river Lee, over which there are several bridges. Cork is an episcopal see, and a city of great trade, situated 15 miles up the river. Though smaller vessels can come up to the quay, yet the larger generally ride at a place called Passage. The city, together with its liberties, makes a county, and is governed by a mayor, aldermen, and sheriffs. It has the most trade of any town in the kingdom, particularly in beef, butter, and tal-

low, of which great quantities are exported to foreign parts; and many ships, bound to the West Indies, put in here to victual. It had formerly several abbies, and has now many handsome public structures, particularly a cathedral, custom-house, and two gates, one on the north, and the other on the south. Its churches are unexceptionably the neatest, and the most elegantly finished, of any in the kingdom.

Kinsale, situated at the mouth of the river Banor, is reckoned the third town in the kingdom, and only inferior to Cork in point of trade. The town is neat, well-built, and strongly fortified with lines and out-works. Great quantities of provisions are shipped off from hence to Flanders, Holland, France, and other foreign parts.

KERRY is, in general, a very mountainous, barren, and dreary county; but the soil of some particular spots is fruitful, especially in corn and grass.

Tralee, the county town, is situated on a bay of the same name; but doth not contain any thing that merits particular notice.

The greatest curiosity in this county is the lake of Killarney, said to be the most beautiful, perhaps, in the world. It is surrounded with one continued range of lofty mountains, rocks, and precipices, the immense declivities of which are covered with woods, intermixed with ever-greens, from nearly their tops down to the verge of the lake. In the neighbourhood of the lake are many seats and villas, and the remains of an old abbey, which are well deserving the notice of a traveller.

LIMERICK county contains several lofty mountains, one of which, called Knock-Patrick, affords a very fine prospect of the sea, the Shannon, and the adjacent country.

Limerick, which gives name to the county, is the see of a bishop, and a very strong, handsome town. It stands upon the Shannon, which is navigable for ships of burden almost up to the city, though situated about 60 miles from its mouth. The city is divided into two parts, both of which are strongly fortified with walls, castles, bastions, and bulwarks, with draw-bridges upon the river. Here is a fine cathedral, and barracks for 22 companies of foot.

TIPPERARY is, in general, a very fertile county; but the northern part of it is mountainous, and the air bleak and unwholesome.

Clonmell, the county town, is situated on the banks of the Suir. Here are barracks for two troops of horse, and a good market. The town is walled, neat, and populous, and has a strong jail and a court-house.

WATERFORD county is chiefly level; notwithstanding which a great part of it is barren, and the air thick and unwholesome.

The town of Waterford was first built by certain pirates of Norway, and hath been a bishop's see ever since the year 1096. Till it was eclipsed by Cork, it was accounted the second city in the kingdom for trade, wealth, and populousness, being situated on a fine harbour, and defended on the east side by Duncannon fort. Here is a fine cathedral. The city carries on a great trade, particularly with England; and ships of burden come up close to its quay, which is one of the finest in Europe. The haven extends near eight miles, almost in a strait line, and is but little encumbered with rocks or sands. The city, and its liberties, make a distinct county. There is a citadel on the west side, and on the east a block-house and store-house.

CONNAUGHT is the most mountainous of the four provinces into which Ireland is divided. It is the least cultivated and enclosed, the thinnest of inhabitants, and those the most ignorant and unpolished. Grazing is the chief employment of the peasants. Immense numbers of sheep and bullocks are bred here, particularly in the counties of Clare and Galway. It also abounds in horses, game, venison, honey, and hawks; and is well supplied with fish, having many convenient bays and creeks on the coast, and several

ral rivers, particularly the Shannon, Moy, Suck, Dro-fos, and Gyll. This province contains the following counties.

GALWAY is the largest county, next to Cork, in the whole kingdom; and, in general, very fertile in corn, pasture, and cattle.

The city of Galway, which gives name to the county, is seated on a noble bay, having many harbours and roads on every side. It is a very neat, strong, and flourishing city; and admirably situated for trade, not only to France and Spain, but also to the West Indies. The buildings, both public and private, are generally of stone, and handsome. The harbour is about two miles from the city, to which the goods are brought in lighters. Here are barracks for two companies of foot. The city is walled, and was once the see of a bishop, but is now within the archbishopric of Tuam. It carries on a very considerable herring-fishery, and is almost the only place upon this coast that has any foreign trade.

Tuam has been the see of an archbishop ever since the beginning of the 6th century.

CLARE county has a good air and soil, but contains very few towns. The most remarkable is Clare, so called from Richard and Thomas de Clare, younger sons of the earl of Gloucester, to whom Edward I. gave the county. At this place are barracks for two companies of foot.

Ennis is the county town, and by much the best in it, standing about two miles from Dublin. It is situated on a lake formed by the Shannon, is a neat place, and has a good market.

Killaloe, a bishop's see, with the privilege of a fair and market, stands on the Shannon. The diocese is very large, containing 100 parish churches, besides chapels. A little to the south of this town is a ridge of rocks, which run quite across the river Shannon, and stop all navigation farther up.

SLIGO is a very mountainous county, and, in the plains and vallies, the air is very unwholesome, owing to their being full of bogs. The soil, where it is free from lakes and fens, is tolerably good, and fit either for grazing or tillage.

Sligo, the capital, stands on a bay, to which it gives name, as well as the county. Though not large, it is pretty populous, and has an old castle; but its trade is inconsiderable; notwithstanding its harbour is so deep that ships of 200 tons burthen can come up to the quay.

In the hill, or rather rock, of Corren, in this county, many strange caves and recesses have been discovered. They are called the Giants-houses, and supposed to be the works of the Danes.

MAYO county abounds in lakes, and, on one side, is enclosed by the sea. The air is moist and cold, especially upon the mountains, where the soil is also poor and coarse; but in the other parts there is good pasturage, with herds of cattle and deer.

Among the lakes and rivers in this county abounding with fish, particularly salmon, is Lough-Mask, a lake 11 miles long and five broad. On the banks of this lake formerly lived the Galoglasses, a people descended from the Scots of the Western Isles, who used to fight in coats of mail with two-edged battle-axes.

Mayo, the county town, stands on the borders of Sligo, at the mouth of the river Moy. It was once a bishop's see; but the bishopric hath been some time annexed to Tuam.

Cattlebar, the only parliamentary borough in the county, contains barracks for a troop of horse, and stands on a little river, which falls into Lough-Conn.

ROSCOMMON is a very healthy country. The air is clear, and the soil yields plenty of grafs, with some corn. It is enclosed on the north by the Curlew Mountains, which are very high and steep.

Roscommon, the county town, is a very insignificant place.

Ballina-Sloe, a small town in this county, is remarkable for having the largest beast or stock-fairs in the

king's dominions. It is kept twice a year, and each time continues a week.

LEITRIM county is very mountainous, but noted for grazing vast herds of cattle.

The town, which gives name to the county, is situated near the Shannon. It was formerly a tolerable good town, but is now greatly decayed.

To the foregoing geographical description of Ireland, we shall add the following table, exhibiting, at one view, the names of the respective counties, their length, breadth, chief towns, and the members they respectively send to parliament

Pro- vinces.	Counties.	Leng.	Bred.	Chief Towns.	Parlia. Mem.
ULSTER,	Donegal	64	35	Donegal	12
	Londonderry	36	30	Londonderry	8
	Antrim	46	27	Carrickfurgus	10
	Tyrone	60	35	Omagh	10
	Fermanagh	38	24	Inniskillin	4
	Cavan	47	25	Cavan	6
	Monaghan	32	30	Monaghan	4
	Armagh	32	17	Armagh	6
	Down	44	30	Down Patrick	14
	Dublin	26	15	Dublin	10
	Louth	25	13	Drogheda	10
	Wicklow	36	28	Wicklow	10
LEINSTER,	Wexford	47	27	Wexford	18
	Longford	27	16	Longford	10
	East-Meath	32	25	Trim	14
	West-Meath	35	20	Mullinger	10
	King's County	40	20	Philip's-town	6
	Queen's County	35	30	Maryborough	8
	Kilkenny	40	20	Kilkenny	16
	Kildare	37	23	Kildare	10
	Carlow	28	18	Carlow	6
	Cork	85	50	Cork	26
	Kerry	60	47	Tralee	8
	Limerick	40	27	Limerick	8
MUNSTER,	Tipperrary	60	36	Clonmell	8
	Waterford	46	24	Waterford	10
	Glaway	82	48	Galway	8
	Clare	40	38	Ennis	2
	Sligo	35	33	Sligo	4
	Mayo	58	44	Mayo	2
	Roscommon	35	28	Roscommon	8
	Leitrim	44	18	Leitrim	6

SECTION III.

Manners, Customs, Language, Religion, Government, &c. of the People of Ireland.

THE present descendants of the old Irish, or, as they are usually termed, the Wild Irish, are generally represented as an ignorant and uncivilized sort of people. To this may be attributed those acts of savage cruelty so frequent in this country, as well as the irregularities attending all their public meetings, which generally end in bloodshed. Many of their surnames have an O, or Mac, placed before them, which signify grandson and son. Formerly the O was used by their chiefs only, or such as piqued themselves upon the antiquity of their families. Their music is the bagpipe, but their tunes are generally of a melancholy strain. In the interior parts of the kingdom some of their old customs still prevail, particularly their funeral howlings. They pay little respect to the Sabbath, the principal part of the day being consigned to amusements; and in the evening they assemble at public houses, when they dance to the bagpipe, which generally terminates in riot and debauchery.

The common Irish, in their manner of living, seem to resemble the antient Britons, as described by Roman authors, or the present Indian inhabitants of America. Mean huts, or cabins, built of clay and straw, partitioned in the middle by a wall of the same materials, serve the double purposes of accommodating the family,

mily, who live and sleep promiscuously, having their fires of turf in the middle of the floor, with an opening through the roof for a chimney; the other being occupied by a cow, or such pieces of furniture as are not in immediate use.

Their wealth consists of a cow, sometimes a horse, some poultry, and a spot for potatoes. Coarse bread, potatoes, eggs, milk, and sometimes fish, constitute their food: for however plentifully the fields may be stocked with cattle, they seldom taste butcher's meat of any kind. Their children scarcely know the use of cloaths, and are not ashamed to gaze upon strangers, or make their appearance upon the roads in a state of mere nakedness.

The gentry, and better sort of the Irish nation in general, differ very little in language, dress, manners, and customs from those of the same rank in Great Britain, and are generally represented as being very hospitable.

The language of the Irish is fundamentally the same with the British or Welch, and a dialect of the Celtic, which is made use of by the Scotch Highlanders, opposite the Irish coasts. It is, however, in a great measure defaced by provincial alteration, but not so changed as to render the Irish, Welch, and Highlanders, unintelligible to each other. The native language is only spoken by the peasants and lower sort of people, those of the capital and principal places using the English.

Ireland has produced many persons, whose genius and learning would have done honour to any nation. Amongst these might be enumerated, archbishop Usher, Bishop Berkeley, Mr. Boyle, Dr. Leland, several of the earls of Orrery, Sir Richard Steele, Dean Swift, Dean Parnell, Farquhar, Congreve, Sterne, and Goldsmith, &c. all of whom stand high in the republic of letters, and reflect a credit on their country.

The established religion, and ecclesiastical discipline, of Ireland, is the same with that of England. But among the bulk of the people, in the most uncultivated parts, Popery, and that too of the most absurd, illiberal kind, is prevalent. The Irish Papists still retain their nominal bishops and dignitaries, who subsist on the voluntary contributions of their votaries. But even the blind submission of the latter to their clergy does not prevent Protestantism from making some progress there in towns and communities. Great efforts have been made ever since the time of James I. in erecting free schools for civilizing and converting the Irish Papists. The institution of the incorporated society for promoting English Protestant working-schools, though of no older date than 1718, has been amazingly successful, as have many institutions of the same kind, in introducing industry and knowledge among the Irish; and no country can shew greater public-spirited efforts than have been made by the Irish government since that time, for these purposes.

Besides the Protestant and Popish religions, this kingdom contains at least as many sectaries as England, particularly presbyterians, baptists, quakers, and methodists, who are all of them connived at and tolerated.

The government of the church is under four archbishops, viz. of Armagh, who is primate of all Ireland; of Dublin, who is styled primate of Ireland; of Cashell, and Tuam. These archbishops have under them 20 suffragans, whose sees are, in general, well endowed.

There is but one university (if a college can be called such) in the whole kingdom, which is that of Dublin. It was founded by queen Elizabeth, and at present consists of a provost, seven senior, and thirteen junior fellows, and seventy scholars of the house, who have maintenance upon the foundation. The visitors are the chancellor, vice-chancellor, and the archbishop of Dublin.

As Ireland is subordinate to England, the government of it is much the same. The king sends a vice-

roy, who is styled lord-lieutenant, and who comes as near the grandeur and dignity of a king as any viceroy in Christendom. To assist him on all occasions he has a privy-council, composed of the officers of state, and such others as his majesty is pleased to appoint. The parliament is convened, prorogued, and dissolved, at the pleasure of the king. During former reigns the same parliament continued till the death of the king; but by a late act a new one is to be chosen every eight years. The laws made by the parliament here are sent to England for the royal approbation; when, if approved of by his majesty and council, they pass the Great Seal of England, and are returned.

The several orders and degrees of the people and nobility are much the same here as in England; as are also the courts of justice, their terms and manner of proceeding, assizes, justices of the peace, &c.

The new order of St. Patrick was instituted Feb. 5; and the installation of the first knights was performed on the 17th of March, 1783. It consists of the sovereign, and 15 other knights companions. The knights are installed in the cathedral of St. Patrick, Dublin. The badge is three crowns united together on a cross, with the motto round, *Quis separabit?* 1783, fastened by an Irish harp to the crown imperial.

With respect to the commerce of Ireland, her chief exports consist of linen-cloth, yarn, lawn, and cambricks, which are encouraged by the English government. Wool and bay yarn are allowed by law to be exported to England only; but great quantities of both are smuggled into other countries. The other exports are horses, black cattle, beef, pork, green hides, some tanned leather, dried calf skins, tallow, butter, candles, cheese, ox and cow horns, ox-hair, horse-hair, herrings, dried fish, rabbit-skins, otter-skins, goat-skins, &c. The chief articles of their importation are wine, brandy, tobacco, spices, hops, coals, copper, block-tin, lead, West-India commodities, mercery, grocery, and haberdashery goods.

The coins used here are the same with those of England, (the Irish having no mint;) but they differ in their denomination, an English shilling passing for thirteen-pence, a guinea for 11. 2s. 9d. and so of the other coin in proportion.

The principal matters relative to the History of Ireland have been already noticed in that of England. We shall therefore only preserve a few particulars relative to the origin of its inhabitants. Setting aside the ridiculous legends and fables of the Irish, with respect to their antiquity, it seems highly reasonable to conclude that the country was first peopled from Britain. There is no great reason to believe, that it was ever conquered by the Romans, notwithstanding what hath been alledged to the contrary. Towards the decline of the Roman empire a colony of Scots began to make a great figure in Ireland, whence it acquired the name of Scotia. This colony is supposed to have come originally from Spain. The island was afterwards harrassed by the Norwegians and Saxons; but never entirely subdued till Henry II. king of England, made himself master of it. It hath been ever since subject to the kings of England, who were only styled lords of Ireland, till the title of king was bestowed on Henry VIII. by the states of the realm in parliament assembled.

MINOR ISLANDS,

SURROUNDING AND APPERTAINING TO
GREAT BRITAIN.

THE Island of ANGLESEY is the most western county of North Wales. It is 24 miles long, 14 broad, and sends one member to parliament. The river Meni separates it from Caernarvonshire, and on every side it is surrounded by the sea. It abounds in corn, cattle, fish, fowls, &c. produces mill-stones, grind-stones, asbestos or mountain flax, copper ore, stony oler, white clay, &c.

Beaumaris,

Beaumaris, 242 miles from London, a handsome well built town, on the east side of the island, has a good harbour for ships, a very handsome church, with some fine monuments of the Bulkeley family, and the Knights Templars. It was formerly fortified with a strong castle built by Edward I. the ruins of which still remain.

Holy-Head, 28 miles from Beaumaris, and 244 from London, is the station for the packet boat to Ireland, being the nearest land to Dublin. It is the most western point of Anglesey, but is a little island of itself, and has a small village, called, in Welch, Caer Gybi, consisting of a heap of straggling houses built on rocks; but several of them have very comfortable accommodations for passengers, both with regard to lodging and diet. The church was formerly collegiate, and founded by one Keciuss, a hermit, about the year 650. The walls of the church are the remains of a British fortification, built about the year 450, by Caswallon Lawhir, Lord of Anglesey.

The Isle of WIGHT is reckoned a part of Hampshire, though it is near 6 miles from the Main Land. It is 22 miles long, 12 broad, and is divided into 30 parishes. The air is pure and healthful, and the soil so rich, as to produce corn enough in one year to serve it seven. Through the middle of the island runs a ridge of lofty hills, which not only afford plentiful pasture, but a delightful prospect of the sea. The vales below consist of meadow and corn fields; nor is the coast destitute of natural curiosities; and here is excellent fish of various kinds. The extremities of the coast, on the south and west sides, are very rocky; and westward, not far from the shore, are those rocks called the Needles, from their sharpness. Farther to the southward are the Shingles; at both which places the island is inaccessible; and where it is almost level, as it is towards the south east, it is fortified by art.

Newport, the principal town in the island, is a very ancient borough, and a large populous place, greatly enriched by its plenty and commerce, which the inhabitants have not failed to improve: and as they are grown very polite, they have levelled and new pitched the town, posted and paved it with broad stone, about five-feet from the houses, for foot passengers; for being the only market town, it is often very much crowded. Cowes river is navigable by barges to Newport quay, which extends itself round great part of the town, and renders their shipping goods from the store-houses very commodious. The streets are regular and uniform, meeting at right angles. The corn, beast, and butter markets are kept in distinct squares, very large and commodious. The buildings are greatly improved, but neither grand or regular.

Carisbrook, a small village about a mile from Newport, is famous for a castle, built about the time of the Norman conquest, which was the residence of the ancient lords of the island. It is now greatly decayed by time; but the intrenchment without the walls, the many curiosities within, and the extensive prospect it affords, render it one of the greatest curiosities in the island. Here king Charles I. was confined till removed to Hurst castle. Cowes is a remarkable port and harbour, at the mouth of Newport river.

St. Helen's lies at the east end of the island, 12 miles from Newport. It is only remarkable for its road, which is large enough to contain the whole navy of England.

The Islands of SCILLY have been always deemed part of Cornwall. They consist of about 140 small islands, 30 miles from the Land's End, the largest of which, called St. Mary's, is nine miles in circumference. It has a good harbour and a castle, stands high, and is more fruitful than the rest. Several of these islands are overflowed at high water; some of them bear good corn; and others abound with rabbits, cranes, herons, &c. They formerly were rich in tin mines, but there

are no vestiges remaining. The Phœnicians, Carthaginians, and Romans, frequented these islands. They are situated in the middle betwixt the Bristol Channel on the north, and English Channel on the south, so that it is no wonder they have proved the destruction of so many ships and lives. Here Sir Cloudesley Shovel met his much lamented fate, October 22, 1707. Great pains were taken to fix the latitude, and assist the mariner to avoid these islands, by Dr. Halley.

The Isle of MAN, in the Irish Sea, is 30 miles long, 8 broad, and contains 17 parishes. The soil is fertile, and the air good. Here is a bishop, called the bishop of Sodor and Man, but he has not a voice in the British parliament. The commodities are wool, hides, and tallow.

Castle Town is the metropolis, where the governor keeps his court, and where the courts of justice are held. The castle is built of marble, and surrounded with two broad walls and a moat, over which is a draw-bridge; and adjoining to it, within the walls, is a small tower, where state prisoners were formerly confined.

Douglas, situated on the western coast, is the most populous town, and has the best market in the island. It has increased in trade, and proportionally in buildings. The harbour is one of the best in the British dominions.

Peel, situated on the western coast, is a place of considerable trade. Upon a small island close to the town is Peel-castle, one of the strongest in the world, and has a garrison in it. The island on which it stands is a stupendous rock, inaccessible from all quarters but that of the town, from which it is separated by a narrow strait, fordable in low tides. Within one of the churches is a chapel appropriated to the use of the bishop; and underneath the chapel is a dungeon, or prison, for offenders, one of the most dreadful places of confinement that imagination can form. The castle is a magnificent structure; and the prospect of the sea and the ships, which, by reason of the vast height, appear like buoys floating on the waves, fill the mind of the spectator with the utmost astonishment.

The Isle of Man, though held by the British crown, was, till of late, no part of the kingdom of Great Britain; but was governed by its own laws and customs, under the hereditary dominion of a lord, who formerly had the title of king, and who, though he long ago waved that title, was to the last invested with regal rights and prerogatives. But, in the year 1765, for the further and more effectually preventing the mischiefs arising to the revenue and commerce of Great Britain and Ireland, from the illicit and clandestine trade carried on to and from the Isle of Man, it was thought expedient to vest in the crown all rights, jurisdictions, and interests, in and over the said island, and all its dependencies holden by the proprietor, the duke of Athol; who then surrendered the same, excepting only his landed property, and the patronage of the bishopric of Sodor and Man, the temporalities of the same when vacant, and all patronages and ecclesiastical benefices. Upon this annexation of the island, the sum of 70,000*l.* was paid as full compensation to the proprietor, according to his own proposals to the commissioners of the treasury. This contract was executed by both parties under the authority of parliament, April 19, 1765. Before the south promontory of Man is a little island, called the Calf of Man. It is about three miles in circuit, and separated from Man by a channel, about two furlongs broad.

The HEBRIDES, or WESTERN ISLES, are scattered in the Deucalionian Sea, to the north-west of Scotland, of which kingdom they constitute a part, and are situated between 55 and 59 deg. of north lat. They are computed to exceed 300 in number, and contain about 50,000 inhabitants. The air is cold, the appearance dreary, and many parts mountainous, which produce heath, wild myrtle, grass, &c. but other districts, which

which are cultivated, and manured with sea-weed, yield plentiful crops of oats and barley. Here are but very few shrubs or trees, but plenty of pot-herbs, roots, simples, and medicinal plants; some lead mines, marble, lime-stone, free-stone, iron, talc, crystals, and many curious pebbles. Fuel is scarce, the chief being peat. The horses are small, but strong, hardy, and nimble. The black cattle are of a small size, but good eating. The sheep are prolific; but the lambs frequently become a prey to the eagle. All domestic animals, poultry, wild-fowl, sea-fowl, birds of prey, &c. abound. The sea produces whales, seals, and most other fish in great abundance.

The people inhabiting these islands are of the same race with those who live in the Highlands of Scotland, speak the same language, wear the same habit, and observe the same customs. They are, in general, strong, vigorous, and healthy; their constitutions being steeled with labour, and preserved by temperance.

The better sort of the Highlanders live like their neighbours; but the common people are wretchedly lodged, in paltry cottages or cabins, built of loose stones and mud, and thatched with straw. Their partitions are no other than a kind of hurdle, plaistered with clay. They have neither glass in their windows, or any other chimney than a hole in the middle of the roof, through which the smoak finds its way. Immediately under this aperture is a hearth, made of stone, upon which they burn wood, peat, or turf, the smoak of which fills the whole house in such a manner, that a stranger, unaccustomed to the annoyance, would be in danger of suffocation. Around the hearth, in cold weather, the family sit or lie, and work or sleep, as occasion requires. At the farther end of the same house the cattle are stalled; and it is not at all uncommon to see the calves, the pigs, and the children, lying together promiscuously. These people are utter strangers to cleanliness. They are extremely fluttish in their houses, and filthy in their persons; and this impurity is, in all likelihood, one great cause of that inveterate itch with which they are so generally infested.

In particularizing the Hebrides, we shall begin with St. Kilda, which is only five miles in circumference, and situated in 58 deg. of north lat.

The whole Island is one hard rock, divided into four high mountains, thinly covered with black mould, except on the tops, where the soil is three feet deep. The hills are clothed with short grass, which yields good pasturage to the horses, cattle, and sheep; and the vallies of arable land produce large crops of excellent barley. The whole island is naturally fenced with perpendicular rocks, except at one bay to the south-east, about half a mile broad, where there is generally such a tumbling surf and raging sea, that no vessel can anchor with any security. The only landing-place is on the north side of this bay, and extremely hazardous; for it is with great difficulty that a boat can be brought to the side of a slippery rock, on which he that lands must jump with uncommon exertion. There is, moreover, a small bay on the west side of the island, in which some vessels take shelter when the wind is at south, or blows from the north-east: but the sea is generally so impetuous all round, that it frequently removes fragments of rocks and stones of a prodigious weight.

The sea-fowl, which are here very numerous, may be distinguished into these different species: the guer-fowl, larger than a goose, of a black colour, red about the eyes, with short wings, and a broad bill, lays a very large spotted egg, and hatches it on the bare rock; comes hither about the first of May, and departs about the middle of June. The Solan goose equals the common goose in size, and resembles it in shape and colour, with this difference, that the tips of the wings are black, and the top of the head yellow: the bill is long, straight, and crooked at the point; the legs are black and short, and the bird is web-footed. It comes hither in

March, builds its nest among the rocks with grass, lays its eggs, hatches its young, and, when they are fledged, retires in August or September.

The inhabitants of St. Kilda are originally descended from the people of the Harries, and adjacent isles. Like these they speak the Erse language in purity, and profess the Christian religion. They live together in a small village, situated in a bottom among hills, and composed of low, wretched cottages, the thatch and roof being secured by straw-ropes, with stones hanging at the end of them. All the animals on the main land, including dogs, cats, and even wild-fowl, are spotted. Their arable land is divided into ten equal parts, and these again are subdivided according to the number of families. They manure the land with a compost of turf ashes, mixed with straw and urine, and add to this the bones and entrails of the sea-fowl. They plough with a small crooked instrument, sow their barley very thick, and reap an harvest of twenty fold. The sea-coast furnishes them with plenty of cod, ling, mackarel, herring, and all the other species of fish common to the sea. Here are likewise otters and seals; but their chief dependance, for food and profit, is upon the sea-fowl, which they catch many different ways; but this employment subjects them to the most imminent dangers; for they are obliged to climb rocks, the very sight of which, to a stranger, would fill him with horror.

Sixty miles to the westward of St. Kilda is the Lewis, or, Long Island, extending 100 miles in length from north to south, and from 13 to 14 in breadth. It consists of a great number of isles and rocks, and is parted by the sea into two divisions, called Lewis and Harries; the former lying to the westward of the other.

There is a considerable number of inferior adjacent isles and rocks, which are visited every summer by the inhabitants of the Lewis, who go thither in quest of fowls, eggs, down, quills, and feathers, as well as to shear or kill the sheep that are kept here for pasture.

The Isle of Harries, separated by a channel from Lewis, extends about 24 miles in length, and, in some places, about six in breadth. The air and climate are the same with those of Lewis. The face of the ground is rocky and mountainous, covered with grass and heath. On the west side, however, the land is more flat and arable, producing (naturally) abundance of clover and daisy, which, in the summer, perfume the air with an agreeable fragrance. The soil is dry and sandy; but, when manured with sea-weed, yields very great harvests of oats, rye, and barley. There are divers fresh water lakes in this island, abounding with trout, eels, and salmon; the overplus of every lake being discharged into the sea, by an agreeable serpentine river.

Among the larger islands of the Hebrides we rank the Isle of Skie, so called from Skianach, which, in the Erse dialect, signifies winged; because the two promontories of Valerness and Trotterness, by which it is bounded on the north-west and north-east, are supposed to resemble wings. The island lies between the shire of Ross and the western part of Lewis, extending 40 miles in length, from north to south, in some places 20, and in others 30, in breadth, the circumference of the whole amounting to about 100. This, too, is composed of many different islands and rocks. The island of Skie is divided between two proprietors; the southern part belonging to the laird of Macleod; and the northern district, or barony of Trotterness, being the property of a Macdonald, whose ancestor was Donald, king, or lord of the isles, and chief of the numerous clan of Macdonalds, who are counted the most warlike of all the Highlanders. Skie is part of the shire of Inverness, and formerly belonged to the diocese of the isles. On the south it is parted from the main land by a channel, three leagues in breadth; though at the ferry of Glenelly it is so narrow, that a man may be heard calling for the boat, from one side

to the other. Skie is well provided with a variety of excellent bays and harbours, and is surrounded by inferior isles. Soa-Brettil, to the southward, is five miles in circumference, exhibiting a mixture of heath, wood, morafs, and pasture ground. Oronfa, a peninsula at low water, may be about a mile in circuit, and is remarkably fertile. The Isle of Paybay, more to the northward, two miles in compass, produces excellent pasture. Scalpa, in the same direction, is twice as large, generally mountainous, woody, and well watered with springs and rivulets. On the east side of the island a stream, running down the face of a rock, petrifies into a white substance, of which the natives make excellent lime.

The smaller and less considerable islands containing little that is remarkable, do not merit description. But the most celebrated of all the western islands is Jona, likewise called St. Columb-kill, from St. Columba, who came hither from Ireland, and was here buried. The island stretches two miles in length from south to north, in the neighbourhood of Mull, and is about a mile broad from east to west. One end of it is rocky and barren; the other plain, arable, and fruitful. The Isle of Jurah, which is 20 miles in length, and seven broad, belongs to the Argyle family; and Isla, to the west of Jurah, belongs to the Campbells of Shawfield. Gigay, part of the sheriffdom of Argyle, stretching four miles in length, and one in breadth, yields good harvests of oats and barley, and excellent pasturage for cattle.

The Isle of Bute, extending ten miles in length, appears on the west side of Cowal, from whence it is separated by a narrow channel. Part of it is rocky and barren; but, from the middle, southwards, the ground is cultivated, and produces pease, oats, and barley.

Between the Isles of Bute and Kintire, the Island of Arran presents itself to the view. It is high and mountainous, affording good pasturage, and extending 24 miles from north to south, but is so narrow that the breadth scarce amounts to seven.

The ORCADES, or ORKNEY ISLES, lying in the Caledonian Sea, 18 leagues from Shetland, between 58 and 60 deg. of lat. and in long. from London, between 1 deg. 30 min. and 2 deg. 50 min. are divided, on the south, from Caithness, the most northern point of Scotland, by the Pentland, or Pictland Frith, from 12 to 16 miles in breadth. They are in number about 30; but not all inhabited, the greater part being small holmes, that produce nothing but pasturage for sheep and goats. The currents and tides flowing between the islands are extremely rapid; and in the neighbourhood of Swinna are two great whirlpools, called the Wells of Swinna, which are counted dangerous by mariners, especially in a calm. When sailors find themselves sucked into the vortex, they throw overboard a barrel, or some bulky substance, which smooths the vortex, until the vessel hath passed, to be swept down to the bottom, and thrown up again at a considerable distance. When there is a breeze of wind, however, ships cross them without fear or hesitation.

The principal Islands of SHETLAND are these; Mainland, Brassa, the Skerries, Burray, Whalsey, Vust, Yell, Fisslar, &c. Mainland, extending 60 miles in length, and 20 in breadth, is indented by a great number of bays, and abounds with mosses, bogs, and mountains, so that it is more adapted for pasturage than corn: nevertheless, the low grounds, near the shore, produce oats and barley. On the east side of the island stands the principal town, Lerwick, containing about 300 families. Towards the west is situated Scalloway, which, though very small, is the seat of judicature; and here likewise the presbytery of Shetland assemble. It was formerly secured by a castle, now fallen into decay, in which there was once a garrison of English

soldiers, sent thither by Oliver Cromwell. The Island of Brassa, situated to the eastward of Mainland, is about five miles long, and two in breadth; has some arable ground, and two churches; but is chiefly remarkable for its sound, in which the great herring-fishery is carried on. The landlords here are considerable gainers by letting out their ground and houses for shops to the Dutch and Hamburgers. The Skerries, Burray, Whalsey, and Vust, are inconsiderable islands, the largest and last not exceeding eight miles in length: but all of them are provided with churches; and in Vust there are three good harbours. Yell, in length, amounts to 16 miles, is indented like the figure of eight, has three churches, and several chapels; but the country is moorish and barren. Fesslar, or Fetlor, five miles in length, is remarkable for nothing but the ruins of some watch-towers, which the natives call Picts houses. These are from 20 to 30 feet high, 12 broad, and tapering to the top.

The natural history of the Orcades, and Shetland Islands is similar to those of the Hebrides, as are likewise the characters, customs, and manners of the inhabitants.

To the above we must add four islands in the British Channel, which, though they are situated nearer to the French than the English coast, are subject to England. These are,

JERSEY, an island known to the Romans, and situated 18 miles west of Normandy. The north side is inaccessible through lofty cliffs, but the south is almost level with the water. The higher midland parts are well planted, particularly with apple-trees, from which great quantities of cyder are made. The vallies are fertile, and well cultivated; and the pastures feed great quantities of cattle, sheep, &c. The inhabitants apply themselves, in times of peace, to the improvement of commerce, and more particularly to the manufacture of stockings, the produce of honey, which is here very exquisite, &c. In war time they have, in general, a concern in privateering, for which the situation of the island is admirably adapted. Jersey is about 12 miles in length, hath a healthy air, and contains about 20,000 inhabitants. The capital town, St. Helier, is handsome, and contains about 400 houses. The language is French, corrupted by an intermixture of English words. The governor is appointed by the British crown; but the civil jurisdiction is invested in a bailiff and 12 jurats.

GUERNSEY, 13½ miles long, and near as much in breadth, contains 10 parishes, which have, however, only eight ministers, four of the parishes being united; and Alderney and Sark, which are appendages, having one each. This island, though naturally finer than Jersey, is neither so populous, or so well cultivated. The language is nearly the same as that of Jersey. Much cyder is made here, but fuel is scarce in both the islands. The people, in war time, are fond of privateering. The only harbour is St. Peter le Port, which is guarded by two forts, one called the Old Castle, the other Castle Cornet.

Alderney, about eight miles in compass, is only separated from the coast of Normandy by a narrow strait, called the Race of Alderney. It is a very healthy place, and remarkable for a fine breed of small cows.

Sark is still lesser than the former, has a fine air, and is fertile. The three last of these islands are computed to contain about 20,000 inhabitants; and all the four are part of the Norman patrimony, being the only remains of our antient conquest of France.

ISLANDS in the MEDITERRANEAN.

THE Islands of IVICA and FERMENTORA were called Pythyusæ by the Greeks, from the vast quantities of pines they produced. The former separately

was called Ebusus, and the other Ophiusa and Collubaria. They lie about 36 miles west of Cape St. Martin, on the coast of Spain. The former is about 40 miles long, and 22 broad, and very mountainous, but not unfruitful where cultivated. The commodities are salt and figs. The principal place is Ivica; a small town, with a fort and harbour, and the residence of the governor, who is subordinate to the viceroy of Majorca. Fermentora, six miles south of Ivica, is small, and, at present, uninhabited. Cabrera is another little island, situated south of Majorca. It takes its name from the multitude of goats found upon it; has a small garrison and castle to defend the entrance of the harbour, and is a receptacle for exiles.

MAJORCA, 60 miles in length, and 40 in breadth, is the nearest of any of those islands on the Spanish coast. It abounds in corn, cattle, horses, wine, oil, honey, saffron, deer, rabbits, wild fowl, &c. and is plentifully supplied with fish. Here are four capes, viz. Pedra east, Grosfer west, Salmas south, and Termentor north. It has watch towers all round it. Towards the north and west it is mountainous, but has several good harbours, with plenty of water. The air is wholesome, but very hot and dry in summer. A considerable body of horse and foot is kept here for the defence of the island. The language of the better sort is Spanish; but that of the common people is a medley of Spanish, Latin, Greek, and Arabic. The principal place in it is that from which it takes its name, viz.

Majorca, antiently Palma, which stands on the south-west side of the island, on a bay betwixt two capes, and is a large and well-fortified town, the residence of the viceroy, the seat of a court of inquisition and other courts, and also of a bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Valentia, and has a revenue of 20,000 ducats per annum. Here likewise is an university, a stately cathedral, a great many churches, with several hospitals, handsome streets, and squares. Of the last there is one called Born, where the bull-fights and other shews are exhibited. The inhabitants are computed at upwards of ten thousand.

MINORCA lies 33 miles east-north-east of Majorca. Its greatest length, from east to west, is 38 miles, and its breadth 15. The air is moist, but never excessive cold or hot. Here are lead-mines, plenty of fish, salt, fine marble, rabbits, sheep, honey, wax, capers, oil, cotton, wine, some of which is excellent, fine acorns, opuntia, palm-trees, which, however, bear no fruit, myrtles, with a vast variety of petrified shells, and a great deal of cattle. The water is said to be none of the best. The inhabitants, like the Spaniards, are too proud and lazy to cultivate the ground in a proper manner, and consequently have but little corn. They have a natural turn to poetry, love music and dancing, and, like their ancestors, are expert slingers. In 1756 the French got possession of this island. At the conclusion of the war in 1763, it was restored to the English: but it was taken by the Spaniards last war, and is now become a Spanish island again.

Citadella, the capital, lying on the west coast, where the governor resides, is a small place, but well fortified, and chiefly inhabited by the English.

Port Mahon is one of the finest harbours in Europe, both for its capaciousness and security from wind and enemies, being four miles long, and above half a mile in breadth. The town is small, but has a brisk trade. Near it is St. Philip's castle, a square fort of four bastions, which has always a good garrison.

CORSICA, between the Gulph of Genoa and the Island of Sardinia, extends from 41 to 43 degrees of north latitude, and from nine to ten degrees of east longitude.

The island being for the most part mountainous, woody, dry, and stony, has little arable land. Some

of the low grounds and vallies, however, yield corn, wine, figs, almonds, chefnuts, olives, and other fruits. Here is also a good breed of cattle and horses; and the woods and forests abound with deer, and other game, together with honey and wax. There are also some salt-works and hot baths on the island, with crystals, iron, and allum.

The Island of Corsica will ever be famous for the noble stand its inhabitants made for their liberty against their Genoese tyrants; and afterwards against the base and ungenerous efforts of the French to enslave them, though they were at length overpowered by numbers, and compelled to submit. Paoli, who commanded them in the struggle for freedom, was taken under the protection of the British court. In consequence of this distinguished tyranny and oppression, Theodore, their king, took refuge in England, where he remained in a very impoverished state many years, and at length died at a private lodging in Soho, in the year 1757.

Bastia, the capital, situated on the north-east coast of the island, has a good harbour and castle, is pretty well fortified, and is the see of a bishop.

San Fiorenzo, situated also on the northern side of the island, on a gulph to which it gives name, has a good haven, is fortified, and the residence of a bishop.

Bonifacio is a small, but well peopled town, on the southern coast of the island. Porto Vecchio is a little sea-port town on the eastern coast. Corto, on the Golo, is an episcopal see, with a strong castle and wall for its defence.

Ajazza is an episcopal see, a place of good trade, and well peopled.

The Island of SARDINIA, which gives a royal title to the duke of Savoy, lies 150 miles west of Leghorn, is 160 miles in length, and 80 in breadth, has but an indifferent air, but a fruitful soil, and abounds in corn, wine, oil, fruit, cattle, game, buffalos, bears, and deer, (some of which have fine spotted skins) gold, silver, lead, iron, sulphur, allum, &c. The only venomous creature is a kind of spider. The commodities, independent of the productions already mentioned, are coral, linen, silk, wool, hides, and cheese. The inhabitants are of a dissolute and idle disposition. The religion is Roman Catholic, and the language Spanish.

Cagliari, the capital, situated on the south side of the island, and on the declivity of a hill, is divided into high and low; the former being handsome and well-built, but the latter poor and unhealthy. The cathedral is magnificent; the archbishop and viceroy reside here; the port is spacious, and defended by a battery and castle; and the town contains several convents.

The rivers Sacro and Tirso, by an opposite course, cut Sardinia nearly into two equal parts or provinces; the one called Il Capo de Cagliari, and the other Il Capo de Sassari, or Luggedori. There are many ports, gulphs, and bays in it, with several strong towns, a great number of villages, three archbishoprics, and four bishoprics. The clergy, both secular and regular, have great privileges, incomes, and immunities. The only university is that of Cagliari.

About Sardinia lie many smaller islands, of which the principal are, St. Pietro, St. Antiocho, La Vacca, Il Toro, Rossa, Bovara, Tavolata, Asinaria, Serpentera, Tazzo, Carbonera, and Ogliastro. Asinaria, the most considerable of these, by the antients stiled the great island of Hercules, is about 28 miles in compass, and lies about four miles from Cape Monte Falcone, and 15 north of the city of Sassari.

Capri, or Caprea, is much taken notice of for the noble ruins on it. It is about four miles long, and one broad, and is situated at the entrance of the gulph of Naples, about three miles from the continent. This isle was the residence of the emperor Augustus, for some time, who came here for his health and recreation. Tiberius, after him, made it a scene of the most infamous

mous pleasures. The principal ruins and remains of antiquity are at the extremity of the eastern promontory. What chiefly recommended this island to Tiberius was its temperate healthful air, being warm in winter, and cool in summer; and the nature of its coast, which is so very steep, that a small number of men may defend it against a great army. The surface of the island was then cut into easy ascents, adorned with the emperor's and other palaces, and planted with a variety of groves and gardens. The rocks also underneath were cut into highways, grottos, galleries, bagnios, and subterraneous retirements; but they were afterwards defaced or demolished by the Romans. It contains about 1500 inhabitants, who are exempt from all taxes; and belongs to the province of Lovoro, in the kingdom of Naples. There are several springs of fresh water in it; and, in a delightful valley between the mountains, at the two extremities, stands a city of the same name with the island, which is the see of a bishop, whose revenue arises chiefly from the prodigious flights of quails that come thither at certain seasons, particularly in March, when vast quantities of them are sent to Naples, and sold very cheap. On this account, the bishopric is sometimes jocosely stiled, the Bishopric of Quails.

ISCHIA is a small but pleasant and fertile island, lying on the Neapolitan coast, about two miles from the Cape of Messina, and 25 from Naples. Most of it is surrounded with high, craggy, and inaccessible rocks, which shelter it from the winds, and defend it from invaders. Some parts of it are rich and delightful, yielding all manner of delicious fruits, and excellent wines; but others are as dismal and barren. It was antiently called Inarime; and much subject to earthquakes. There are several hot baths and medicinal waters in it, with a number of pleasant towns and villages.

SICILY, the most considerable island of the Mediterranean, is divided from Italy by a narrow strait, called the Faro of Messina. The tides here flow irregularly and violently. The rock antiently called Scylla, and now Capo Sciglio, is on the Calabrian side; and the whirlpool formerly named Charybdis, but now denominated Calosara, lies not far from Messina.

In the first shock of the terrible earthquake, which involved this country in all the horrors of desolation, in the year 1783, part of a rock, near Scylla, was detached from its foundation, and thrown with violence into the sea. Fearful that succeeding earthquakes would be attended with the same dreadful consequences, the inhabitants of Scylla, with their prince, took refuge in their boats, and retired to a small beach surrounded by rocks. But those unfortunate people found not the safety they sought. A second shock detached a mountain near Scylla, and much larger than Scylla itself, from its base, and precipitated it with such violence into the sea, as to raise a most tremendous wave, which first broke upon the Punto del Faw, in Sicily, and then instantly returning with a loud noise, dashed the unfortunate prince, with more than 2000 of his subjects, into the ocean.

The air of Sicily is salubrious, and the soil so fertile, that it is stiled the granary of Italy. It produces abundance of oxen, wine, oil, fruits, sugar, honey, saffron, wax, silk, &c. with some gold, silver, iron, allum, vitriol, salt-petre, and mineral salt. The mountains yield emeralds, jasper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli, and a stone called catochite, of a greenish-speckled colour, which grows soft by the warmth of one's hand, sticking to it like glue, and is an excellent antidote against the sting of scorpions, and some other poisonous insects. A great deal of coral is found upon the coast, and plenty of excellent fish; among which are the pesce spada, or sword-fish, and tunnies. Great quantities of silk, raw and manufactured, are exported from Messina, where a consul from almost every nation in Europe resides, to manage and protect the trade of his nation.

Here are several rivers, and good springs; but few of the rivers are navigable, having but a short course, and descending precipitately from the mountains.

Of the mountains in this island the most noted is Mount Ætna, now called Monte Gibello, or Mongibello, a volcano, whose eruptions have often proved fatal to the neighbouring country. It is 70 miles in circuit, and so high that it harbours many wild-beasts. At the bottom are corn-fields and plantations of sugar canes. Among the other mountains, one of the most considerable is Mount St. Julian, near Palermo, antiently called Eryx, and vulgarly Trepani. The eruptions of Mount Ætna are generally preceded by an earthquake, which often do more damage than the eruptions.

These people, with respect to their character, are far from appearing in a favourable light; being a perverse race, and a mixture of Italians and Spaniards. They speak chiefly Spanish, and follow the Spanish fashions, particularly in wearing black.

The established religion of the island is the Roman Catholic. The number of churches, convents, and religious foundations, is very great, and they are well endowed. There is a sovereign tribunal, which judges in all ecclesiastical affairs, and admits of no appeal to the pope.

The police of Sicily is, perhaps, the most singular in the world. The banditti, who, in any other country, would have suffered the severe punishment due to their crimes, are, in Sicily, not only publicly protected, but universally feared and respected. These wretches have taken possession of the Val Demoni, in the eastern part of the island, where it has been found impossible to extirpate them from their secret and subterraneous retreats; and this circumstance, together with their desperate valour, and vindictive spirit, has induced the Prince of Villa Franca, from a motive of policy, to declare himself their protector and patron. They are the guides and protectors of travellers; and such are their high notions of what they call their point of honour, that, however defective they are with regard to society in general, they ever maintain the most unshaken fidelity, wherever they have once professed it. Whoever reposes confidence in them may be secure of not finding it in the smallest instance abused; but, on the contrary, may wrap himself up in the certainty that his person will be protected from insult or injury, and his property from imposition or depredation by these faithful and resolute adherents; all of whom are known to the other banditti of the island, who, from the same principal of honour, respect not only the persons of their own worthy fraternity, but those whom they escort. The generality of travellers hire a couple of these guards to accompany them in their journies, and, by this means, traverse, with safety, the most dangerous situations in the island. Those of this desperate set who place themselves in the service of the Prince of Villa Franca are invested with his livery, yellow and green, with silver lace, and wear a badge of their order; which, if not very honourable, entitles them at least to so much fear and respect, that the magistrates have been often obliged not only to protect, but even to pay them court, in order to be secure against their revengeful disposition, which impels them to chastise with death whoever has given them just cause of provocation.

The mixture of vice and virtue observable in this ferocious fraternity is very remarkable. While they commit, with impunity, every crime which disgraces humanity, their point of honour is observed in the minutest instances; and the promise of one of these banditti would be performed with as exact a punctuality as the bond of any other man. They frequently borrow money from the country people, who dare not refuse their requests; but if they promise to return it, they will rather fulfil their engagement at the expence of the life and property of some unfortunate passenger, than fail in the honourable performance of what they have undertaken. Those of them who have entered into the service of society, and attend as guards to travellers, carry arms, which

which they make ready for action, and place in a posture ready either for attack or defence, in all suspicious or dangerous places. They tax their landlord's bills according to their own pleasure; and such is the authority with which they either are invested, or which they assume, that they threaten, and would, perhaps, execute, instant death upon the hardy wretch who should dare to attempt an imposition upon the travellers under their protection.

The island is commonly divided into three parts or provinces, viz. Val di Demoni, Val di Noto, and Val di Mazara.

Messina, a large well built city, with a spacious harbour, near the strait to which it gives name, is one of the greatest mart-towns in the Mediterranean, contains many noble edifices, is the see of an archbishop, and contends with Palermo for being the capital of the island. The cathedral is a large spacious building, very rich in plate, and finely adorned in the inside. The other buildings most worthy notice are, the archbishop's palace, the general hospital, called La Loggio, the Lazaretto, and forts. At the annual fair, kept here in August, great quantities of foreign goods are exposed to sale. The city lies on a gentle declivity along the sea, has large suburbs, and is well furnished with water by subterraneous aqueducts, and all kinds of provisions, from sea and land. The port is of an oblong oval form, well fortified, with a citadel, and other works; and so deep, that ships of 80 guns can come close up to the quay. The city also is strongly fortified, though not regularly. In its neighbourhood are some hot mineral waters, esteemed very good against all rheumatic diseases. The chief manufacture of this place is that of silks. Some of the inhabitants are also employed in fishing, cultivating vines and mulberry-trees, and breeding silk-worms.

The ravages of the fatal earthquakes of 1783 were severely felt here. A range of magnificent buildings, in the form of a crescent, which extended for the space of an Italian mile, was, in some parts, totally ruined. In the lower parts of Messina most of the buildings were destroyed; and 700 of the unfortunate inhabitants were either carried off by the dreadful wave which came from the rock of Scylla, or buried in the ruins of their habitations.

Syracuse, anciently a very noble city, is pretty well fortified, and has a port capable of receiving the largest vessels, with a strong castle, supplied with plenty of water by the fountain of Arethusa, so famed among the ancients.

Palermo, anciently Panormus, is a large, rich, and well-built city, situated at the very bottom of a gulph, to which it gives name. It is an archiepiscopal see. The viceroy's palace is a magnificent structure, adorned with fine sculptures, gardens, &c. and serves instead of a castle, standing high, and being flanked with some lofty towers, and other works. There are many other fine public edifices, as the cathedral, several fountains, the city gate, which leads to the sea side, the quay, mole, forts, convents, town-house, lombard-house, and university. The quay is one of the finest walks about the city, being wide, of a great length, and planted with trees. The port is safe and commodious every where, except on the south-west side, which is full of rocks, that rise no higher than the surface of the sea.

Off the north coasts of Sicily, in the Tuscan sea, lie several small islands, called, the Lipari Islands. Lipari, the principal, enjoys a wholesome air, and rich soil, producing corn, wine and fruit, especially figs and raisins, in great plenty, together with sulphur, allum, and bitumen. It hath also some excellent hot springs; and on the coasts are caught a great variety of fine fish, with which it carries on a considerable commerce. The capital, called also Lipari, is strong both by nature and art, well inhabited, and an episcopal see, under that of Messina. Stromboli, the most northern of these islands, is now considered as the great light-house of

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the Mediterranean Sea. The volcano rises to a considerable height; and it is agreed that, in clear weather, it is discoverable at the distance of 25 leagues, and that, at night, its flames are to be seen much farther; so that its visible horizon cannot be less than 500 miles. The small islands of Levanzo, Maritima, and Favagnana, lie at the west end of Sicily, and both they and the Lipari Isles are subject to the king of the Two Sicilies.

MALTA, 60 miles south of Cape Passaro in Sicily, is of an oval figure, 20 miles long, and 12 broad. The air is hot, but clear; and the whole island is of a white soft rock, covered to the depth of a foot with earth, which produces cotton, indigo, and a variety of fruits, roots, herbs, &c. but corn and salt are the principal commodities. It contains about 60,000 inhabitants, who speak Italian in the towns, and a corrupt Arabic in the country.

The order of the knights of St. John of Jerusalem took its rise in the Holy Land in the 11th century. The knights maintained their ground in Syria, and the Holy Land, against all the efforts of the Turks, for the space of two hundred years; but being at last compelled to quit them, they retired to Cyprus; and afterwards made themselves masters of the Island of Rhodes, which they also defended, for 200 years, against all the power of the infidels. At the expiration of that time they were compelled to resign the island, with all its dependencies, to Solyman II. After several affecting vicissitudes of fortune, the order at length obtained from the emperor Charles V. an asylum for their scattered forces; and in the year 1530 took possession of the islands of Malta and Gozzo. In these islands the order still exists, and is distinguished by the title of the knights of Malta.

The knights consist of eight tongues or nations, the chief of which are French, Italian, Spaniards, English, and German. They have commanderies, or estates, in all, or most parts, of the Roman Catholic countries, and are said to amount to about 3000. They ought all to be of ancient noble families; but sometimes nobility is dispensed with, on account of personal merit, and such are called *cavalieri di gratia*. Not only the grand-master, but the knights in general, are capable of being advanced to a cardinal's hat. According to the statutes, no natural children, those of great princes excepted, nor persons under 18 years of age, can be admitted into the order: but the pope may dispense with these qualifications; and the grand master has an unlimited privilege to grant this favour to six persons.

Valetta, the capital, is a handsome town, with an excellent harbour, and strongly fortified. Here are a handsome palace for the grand-master, several convents, nunneries, and churches, the principal of which is dedicated to St. John, a college of jesuits, a large hospital, and a building where Turkish slaves are kept. Of the other towns, the most considerable are, Citta Vittoriosa, or Il Borgo Senglea, Malta, called also Medini, and Citta Vecchia, where the bishop resides, Bormola, Cittanuova, Cottonera, Forte di S. Thomasso, and Forte Rosso.

The island of Gozzo is very fruitful, and has several good harbours, and strong forts.

ISLANDS OF THE ADRIATIC, &c.

LIBUSIONA, or Lefina, 75 miles north-east of Naples, is about 70 miles long, and 16 broad. The shore is low, has two castles, and a Mosaic kind of decayed causeway. The rest is inhabited by husbandmen, who cultivate the most fertile part of the country, which, though mountainous and rocky, produces plenty of corn, wine, olives, saffron, honey and fruits. There live in towns and large villages, some of 100, some 500 families; and there is considerable gain from good fisheries. Here are many fine churches, monasteries, &c. The capital, of the same name, is a well built and populous city.

11 L

CORFU,

CORFU, or CORCYRA, near the mouth of the Adriatic, is about 120 miles in circumference, and a very important place to the Venetians, who have generally about 15 galleys, and other vessels. The place is famous for salt, wine, olives, lemons, cyder, &c. Corfu, the principal city, has a metropolitan church of the Greeks. It is a handsome town, and well defended by an impregnable castle, called St. Ange.

CEPHALONIA is rather larger than Corfu, and very fruitful. The capital, called Cephalonia, is a bishop's see. Argolisto is the principal port, and the residence of the governor; and Aiso is a strong fortress.

ZANTE, 12 miles south of Cephalonia, is 150 miles in circumference, mountainous, and subject to earthquakes. It has, however, plenty of wines, oil, corn, and fruit. Zante, the capital, is populous; and near Chiari, a sea-port town, are two springs of clear water, which throw up pitch. South from Zante, on the Morea coast, lie two small clusters of islands, the one called Strophades, the other Strivali. Cerigo, formerly Cerhera, is a rocky barren island, 60 miles in circumference, between Candia and the Mare, and containing a town of the same name.

LEUCADIA, or ST. MAURA, lies in the Ionian Sea, and is divided from the continent by a strait not above 50 paces over, or more than four feet deep. The Carthaginians settled a colony here, and formed the strait; for Leucadia was formerly a peninsula. Near the town of Leucas (a few remains of which are still to be seen) stood the famed rock of Leucate, from which despairing lovers threw themselves, as an effectual cure for love. The whole island is fruitful, and near 40 miles in circumference.

CANDIA, formerly Crete, is situated in the south of the Archipelago. Candia, antiently the capital place, is now in ruins, and the harbour so spoiled as to admit only boats. The walls, however, which are yet standing, are pretty strong. It belongs to the Turks, who took it in 1669. The air is good, and the soil fertile. In the city of Candia the beglerbeg resides, and in the town of Candia there is a bashaw. Mount Ida, so famed in history, is only a barren, disagreeable, sharp-pointed eminence, situated in the middle of the island.

The CYCLADES are a number of islands of the Archipelago, disposed in the form of a circle, as their name imports. We shall enumerate them, and attend to such of them particularly as merit description.

The island of Milo, or Melos, is 50 miles in circumference, and contains about 5000 inhabitants. It has a town of the same name in the eastern part of the island, with one of the largest and best harbours in the Mediterranean, which serves as a retreat for vessels passing to or from the Levant. The island abounds in delicious fruits, excellent wines, and good cattle. It is remarkable for producing plume alum, and salt is so plentiful as scarcely to bear a price. It is governed by a cadi, and there are two bishops, one of the Greek, and the other of the Latin church.

The cavern, at some distance from the harbour, has a very romantic appearance. It serves as a shelter for shepherds, who retire under it to dress their flocks; and is the porch to certain galleries, the purpose of which is difficult to determine, unless they are ancient quarries, from which stone was formerly dug for building the town; but this stone is light, spongy, and bears all the marks of speedy decay. The surrounding rocks are of the same nature, and the subterraneous fire is continually undermining them.

On the very edge of the sea, about a mile from these quarries, is a grotto, plentifully supplied by a hot sulphurous spring; the vapour of which makes the place a natural stove or sweating-room, salutary in various

disorders: and for many ages the people have had recourse to this bath for complaints that required the most active medicines, which derived their efficacy from the use of the waters. It was peculiarly good in eruptive disorders, and is much frequented by the Greeks of the neighbouring islands on that account.

Argentiera is an island of the Grecian Archipelago, formerly known by the name of Cimolis, and which is still, by the modern inhabitants, called Kimoli. The French navigators have named it Argentiére, from the silver mines discovered in it; but these are now shut up, and the natives deny all knowledge of such metal being in the island, from an apprehension that the Turks might compel them to labour in the mines. It is a barren spot, destitute of all water but what can be saved in cisterns, and has but one village in it.

There is not a more dismal place in all the Levant than this island, which is covered with rocks, that scarcely suffer a few trees to grow; and in which the land exhibits no verdure. Some fields of barley and cotton are, indeed, to be found round the village, which is only an assemblage of miserable cottages, where the women, children, and cattle, all crowd promiscuously together. The dress of the women is inconceivably ridiculous, consisting of an enormous load of linen sufficiently dirty! Their under petticoat is only their short shift, embroidered with red, that leaves their legs exposed; the thickness of which is esteemed a principal article of female beauty. Those to whom nature has denied this advantage endeavour to supply the deficiency by three or four pair of thick stockings. When the leg is so uniformly thick all the way, as to be truly perfect, according to their standard, the ladies add a pair of half-boots of cut velvet, frequently decorated with small silver buttons. The pirates, who infest the Archipelago, pass their winter in Argentiera; and, by spending their money among the natives, console them for all their inconveniencies.

An usage is established in this island, well known to East-India sailors, of taking a wife for the term of a man's residence there. The issue of such occasional adventures are sufficiently handsome to be distinguished among the women, notwithstanding the dress by which they disfigure themselves. The number of inhabitants is much diminished of late years; and they now scarcely amount to two hundred.

This island is celebrated for the earth known by the name of *Cimolia terra*; which, according to the antients, was efficacious in St. Anthony's fire, inflammations, and other external affections; being applied by way of cataplasm. They also used it for bleaching of linen, and cleaning of cloaths. This earth, though long disregarded, and supposed to be lost, is, however, still very plentiful in Argentiera, Siphanto, Milo, and other islands; and is a marble of a lax and friable texture, of a pure bright white colour, and soft to the touch. It is evidently the same substance that is found in the county of Cornwall, and which we call Steatites, or the soap-rock.

Siphanto is an island of the Grecian Archipelago. The air is so wholesome here, that many of the inhabitants live to the age of 120. Their water, fruits, wild-fowl, and poultry, are excellent, but more especially the grapes. It abounds with marble and granite; and is not only one of the most fertile, but one of the best cultivated of these islands. The inhabitants employ themselves in raising olive trees and opers, and have very good silk. They trade in figs, wax, honey, onions, and straw-hat, and their number may amount to about five thousand.

The dress of the women of Siphanto is much less disagreeable than that of some of the neighbouring islands, and bears a little resemblance to the true Grecian habit. The plate exhibits the representation of a woman attending the concerns of her young family. Hammocks are used for young children in many of the islands in the Archipelago; but the beds are higher, larger, and more awkward, in Siphanto, than in any other.

Engraved for BANKES'S *Veve System of* GEOGRAPHY *Published by Royal Authority.*



Grecian WOMEN of the Island of ARGENTIERA in the Archipelago.



Grecian WOMEN of the Island of SANTORINI in the Archipelago.

Engraved for BANKES'S New System of GEOGRAPHY (Published by Royalt's Authoring.)



*Dresses of the WOMEN of NIO, one of the Grecian Islands
in the Archipelago.*



*The ROMECA DANCE, by the People of the Isle of PAROS,
in the Grecian Archipelago.*

Engraved for BANKES's. New System of GEOGRAPHY Published by Royal Authority.



*Different DRESSES of the Grecian Inhabitants of NAXIA an
Island in the Archipelago.*



*Dresses & Accoutrements of the SOLDIERS in ALBANIA a Province
of Turkey in Europe.*

Woodcut sculp.

other. The women plait their hair with woollen bands; and, turning up the ropes thus formed, fasten them on the crown of the head. When they travel into the country, they screen their complexions from the heat of the sun, by covering their faces with stripes of linen, fastened under the chin.

The island of Paros is one of the most celebrated of the Cyclades. In its riches and population it found a commanding influence over the fate of its neighbours; and, by the courage of its inhabitants, its freedom and prosperity were long secured. The great Miltiades attacked them in vain; but the more fortunate Themistocles compelled them to submit to the Athenian arms. It then fell successively under the power of Mithridates, the Romans, and the Venetians, till the famous Barbarossa finally subjected it to the Turkish empire under Solymán II.

This island is now but thinly inhabited. In a former war with the Turks, the Russians had very prudently fixed their head quarters here. The residence of the forces, of course, drove away a part of the inhabitants. Every where, indeed, we may view the sad vestiges of desolation. In short, the country is over-spread with the richest fragments.

The marble of Paros has been famous for many ages for its superior excellence.

Of all the dances, which the modern Greeks practise in great variety, the most common is called the Romeca. This has a most surprising conformity with the dances of their ancestors. The passion for dancing has always been the same among the Greeks; nor have misfortune and servitude been able to subdue their natural love for pleasure; for in the gaieties of a festival they forget their misery.

Antiparos is remarkable for a grotto, which is, perhaps, one of the greatest curiosities in nature. It appears to be about 40 fathoms high, and 50 broad. The roof forms a pretty good arch, which every way entertains the eye with an infinite variety of figures, of a white transparent chrystalline marble, representing vegetables, pillars, and a superb pyramid, all which appear to be natural.

Naxia, or Naxos, is a considerable island, 25 miles in length, and 88 in circumference. The whole is covered with orange, lemon, olive, cedar, citron, pomegranate, fig, and mulberry trees; and abounds with springs and brooks. The island has no good harbour; yet the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in barley, wine, figs, cotton, silk, flax, cheese, salt, oil, and cattle. It is inhabited both by Greeks and Latins, who live in great dread of the Turks; so that when the meanest of their ships appear here, they always wear red caps like galley-slaves; but as soon as they are gone, they then put on their caps of velvet.

The female dress of this island has something truly ridiculous in its appearance. The two wings of the black velvet, which they fix behind to their shoulders, are altogether preposterous. They wear a heavy stomacher, or breast-piece, of velvet, covered with embroidery and small pearls. If we view them behind, we shall be again disgusted to see round their loins, what, for want of a better name, we must be content to call a circular shelf, calculated to support the ends of a kind of laced lappets hanging down from their shoulders; in which all we have to admire is a composition of absurdity. They add to this romantic cumbersome dress all the coquetry of behaviour they can assume. They paint, blacken their eye-brows and eye-lashes, and cover their faces with patches, made of the leaves of a black shining talc, which they find in the island. But in the form of their patches they betray a fickleness beyond even what is shewn in our climate: they sometimes cut them triangular, sometimes like a star; but a patch like a crescent, or half-moon, placed between the eyes, is thought to be irresistibly beautiful.

To finish the character of these fantastic ladies, it may be added, that they are so vain, that when they

return out of the country to their town-houses, they will have perhaps forty women in their train, some on asses, and some on foot; one of whom carries a napkin or two, a second a petticoat, a third a pair of stockings, and so on: all which composes a very whimsical kind of procession to strangers.

The island of Nio, anciently called Ios, from being first planted by a colony of Ionians, and celebrated as the burial-place of Homer, is about 35 miles in circumference, is fertile in corn, but has very little wood or oil. A few years ago a Dutch officer, in the Russian service, who had occasion to visit this island, from finding some antique marbles, persuaded himself that he had discovered the tomb of Homer; but as we have heard no more about it, there is reason to suppose he has renounced the pretension.

The dress of the women of Nio is far from being disagreeable. They wear only a plain waistcoat; which shews their shape without any constraint; and their petticoats are short enough to bring their modesty in question; a circumstance which cannot be considered as an indication of the purity of their manners: but tho' they are not able to indulge much in the article of dress, they nevertheless do not violate the general rules of decency.

The regular manners and behaviour of these islanders, one among another, with their kind treatment of strangers, revives an idea of the simplicity of the primitive ages. Men, women, and children appear eager to do any good offices for travellers, without permitting their servants to share in their diligence. This benevolent disposition is without any mixture of impertinent curiosity or interest, but is the genuine remains of ancient hospitality. An ingenious gentleman, who was lately on the island, experienced the truth of this representation. He could not prevail on any of them to accept the least pecuniary recompence for their trouble. They only required an attestation of the welcome he received; their character, in this respect, seeming to be what these honest people chiefly prided themselves in. It may be truly affirmed that hospitality is the point of honour in the east, and that this virtue is constitutional in the Greeks; since we find it in modern, as well as in remote times, under their tyrannical government, as well as in their republican ages; under the Christian and Mahometan faiths, as well as under Paganism. The Greeks inherit hospitality from their ancestors; the Turks derive it from their religion.

Tina, anciently Tinos, is seventeen miles in length, and eight in breadth. The riches of this island consist in silk. They make exceeding good silk stockings; but nothing can compare with the silk gloves knit here for the ladies. The fortress of Tinos stands upon a rock, and the town adjoining contains about 500 houses.

The easy labour in which the maid-servants of the island of Tina are employed allows them to preserve all their personal attractions. Their principal objects of attention are the nourishing of silk-worms, or winding the silk that they produce. There prevails here a general attention to neatness, that is very pleasing to a traveller, because it is a certain evidence of prosperity; and shews the facility with which they can procure the necessaries of life. The inhabitants of Tina find themselves sufficiently easy and satisfied, without being reduced to the desire of appearing gaudy in their apparel.

The love of their country is predominant throughout all the Grecian islands, but no where more conspicuous than among the natives of Tina. Great numbers of servants, born on this island, are to be found all over the Levant, who are distinguished, by their dress, their good understanding, and by their fidelity; but who never lose sight of a desire to return to their own country, to enjoy, with freedom, the acquisitions of their industry. Policandro contains only one village: from its castle may be seen all the islands of the Archipelago. Lemnos, or Stalimene, lies on the north part of the Archipelago, and is almost a square of 25 miles

in length and breadth. Though it produces corn and wine, yet its principal riches arise from its mineral earth, called *Terra Sigillata*, and much used in medicine, from which the Turks receive a considerable revenue.

Negropont, the ancient Eubæa, is 90 miles long and 25 broad. Here the Turkish galleys lie. The tides on its coast are irregular, and the island is fertile, producing corn, wine, fruit, and cattle, in such abundance, that all kinds of provision are extremely cheap.

Delos, only about eight miles in compass, is the center of the Cyclades. Mycone has a town of the same name, and its inhabitants are the best sailors in the Archipelago. Andros, 120 miles in compass, is pleasant, fertile, and well watered. Zia is fruitful, and contains some antiquities. Joura is desolate. Thermia populous.

The SPORADES, or SCATTERED ISLANDS, are as follow: Engia, 30 miles in circumference, is very fruitful. Colouri, anciently Salamis, 50 miles in circumference, contains three villages, one of which is called Colouri, and gives name to the island.

Scyro is 60 miles in circumference, and has a town of the same name. Stalimene, or Lemnos, is of a square form, being about 25 miles on each side. Samondra-chi, or Samothrace, near the coast of Romania, is 25 miles in circuit. Embro contains four villages, one

bearing the name of the island. Theffus is famous for wine and marble. Macronisi is barren, and uninhabited. Syra has a town of the same name, with a good harbour. Sikino produces plenty of figs, and the best wheat in the Archipelago; and Serphanto abounds in iron and loadstone. This latter was the place where the Romans banished their malefactors.

Cerigo, or Cytherea, is about 50 miles in circumference, but rocky and mountainous, and chiefly remarkable for being, according to the account of the ancients, the favourite residence of Venus, and the native place of Helen, who was the occasion of the siege of Troy.

Santorini is one of the southernmost islands in the Archipelago. Though seemingly covered with pumice stones, yet, through the industry of the inhabitants, it produces barley and wine, with some wheat. Near this island another arose, of the same name, from the bottom of the sea, in 1707. At the time it arose there was an earthquake, attended with the most dreadful lightning and thunder, and boilings of the sea for several days; so that it was a mere volcano; but the burning soon ceased. It is about 200 feet above the sea, and, at the time of its first emerging, it was about a mile broad, and five miles in circumference; but it has since increased. Several other islands, in the Archipelago, appear to have had the like original; but the sea in their vicinity is so deep as not to be fathomed.

S U P P L E M E N T.

PURSUANT to our proposal of presenting to our readers the most authentic accounts we could procure of discoveries that might be made by navigators, or events that might occur in any part of the world, through the progress of our work to the close of it, we subjoin the following particulars.

That chain of islands called the PALOS, or PELEW ISLANDS, situated in the west part of the Pacific Ocean, between the 5th and 9th degrees of north latitude, and between 130 and 136 degrees of east longitude, though heretofore imperfectly noticed by some ships making the eastern passage from China, were never visited by any Europeans, till the crew of the *Antelope*, captain Wilson, a packet belonging to the East India Company, which was wrecked, in August 1783, landed there, and were the means of discovering to us, a new world, or set of human beings, who, though of an uncultivated nature, appeared to be greatly different from those commonly termed savages, and evince principles of humanity and generosity, that would reflect the highest honour on the most exalted of our race.

As the *Antelope*, which sailed from Macao, the 20th of June, 1783, was proceeding on her voyage from China, she unfortunately struck on a rock in the night of the 9th of the following August.

The crew, waiting with anxious suspense the approach of morning, in order to discover whether any land was near, cried, at the dawn of day, a small island to the southward, about three or four leagues distant; and soon after some other islands were seen to the eastward, which proved to be those under consideration.

Apprehensions were naturally felt on account of the natives. Boats, however, were manned, loaded with such articles as were deemed most necessary, and dispatched from the ship under the direction of a principal officer, whose design was to obtain, if possible, a friendly intercourse with the inhabitants, in case they should find any. As the ship was expected every moment to go to pieces, those who remained went immediately to work to make a raft, on which, when

completed, with the assistance of two boats, they all, except one man, who fell over-board before they set out, reached the shore, after encountering many difficulties.

In the course of two days from their landing, the crew observed some natives approaching, in canoes, from the points of the bay. This spread so great a consternation, that all ran to their arms: but as there were only two canoes, the captain ordered the people out of sight till farther notice.

A very singular circumstance much facilitated the intercourse between our countrymen and the natives. A Malay, who some time before was cast away upon this island, had acquired the language; and it happened that one of the *Antelope's* men was a native of Bengal, and spoke the Maylay tongue, by which means a ready communication was maintained on both sides.

When the canoes, which advanced slowly towards the shore, got within hearing, the native of Bengal spoke to them in the Maylay tongue; on which, though they did not seem to understand him, they stopped their canoes. Soon after, however, one of them spoke in the above language, asking our people "who they were? whether they were friends or enemies?" The native of Bengal, by the captain's direction, replied, "That they were distressed Englishmen, who had lost their ship on the reef, and that they were friends." On this they seemed to commune together; and soon after came out of their canoes, which captain Wilson observing, he waded into the water to meet them; and after embracing them in a friendly manner, conducted them to his officers, and the others who had retired.

These people were entirely naked. They were of a deep copper colour, and their skins soft and glossy, owing to the external use of cocoa nut oil. Each chief had a basket of beetle nut, and a bamboo, finely polished, and inlaid at each end, in which they carried a kind of coral, burnt to a lime, called *chinam*. It was observed that all their teeth were black, and that the beetle nut, of which they had always a quid in their mouths,

mouths; rendered the saliva red, which, together with their black-teeth, gave their mouths a very disgusting appearance. They were of a middling stature, strait, and muscular, their limbs well formed, and they had a majestic gait. Their hair was black, long, and rolled up behind close to their heads, which appeared neat and becoming. They tattooed their legs a little above the ankles to the middle of their thighs, which gave them a deeper colour than the other parts of their bodies. None of them had any beards, except the youngest of the king's brothers; and it was, in course of time, observed, that they plucked out the hairs by the roots, and that very few only, who had strong thick beards, cherished and let them grow.

Whatever surprize the singularity of these natives might excite in the minds of our people, the natives were no less wrapt in admiration at their appearance. The whiteness of colour attracted them so much, that it was evident they had never before seen any Europeans. They were continually exclaiming, *weel, weel!* and *weel-a-trecoy*; words which implied that they were perfectly pleased with their visitors. They stroked their bodies and arms outside the garments, seeming to doubt whether their coverings were not a part of their real body, being totally ignorant of the use of cloaths. However, the Malay informed them, that the English living in a much colder climate than theirs were obliged to have recourse to artificial warmth, to shield them from the inclemency of the weather, and that, from custom, they could not dispense with it, in a degree, even in the warmest regions.

The hands of the Europeans next engaged their attention, and particularly the black veins of the wrists. They probably imagined the whiteness of the hands and face to be artificial; and the blackness of the veins caused them to think, that it was a mode of tattooing; for they desired to look at the top parts of the arms, to see if the whiteness was continued. After this they requested a farther view of the body, when some of the crew opened their bosoms, and told them that the other parts were nearly the same as that. The hair on the breasts of the Europeans excited their astonishment, as they consider such incumbrance highly indelicate, and pluck it out wherever it is found.

The natives having in some degree satisfied their curiosity, began to express apprehensions that they had intruded too much; but the captain convinced them, by means of the Malay, that their fears were groundless.

As the natives expressed a desire that captain Wilson would send one of his people to Pelew, that the king might see what kind of beings white men were, the captain complied, and appointed his brother for that purpose, giving him a small remnant of blue cloth, a cannister of tea, another of sugar-candy, and a jar of preserved fruit, as a present for the king. The natives behaved in the most friendly manner to the English; and their monarch soon after paid them a visit, with his son and brother. His majesty was perfectly naked, and had no kind of ornament or mark of distinction, like his principal officers, who wore a bracelet of bone at their wrists. He bore a hatchet on his shoulder, the head of which was made of iron, a circumstance which surprized our people much, as all the other hatchets they had seen were of shell. The handle of it, which formed a sharp angle, stuck close to his shoulder, lying before and behind, and wanting no tying to keep it steady in walking.

His majesty would not go into the tents. A sail was therefore spread for him, on which he sat down, with his chief minister opposite, and his two brothers on each side; and the whole was encompassed by his attendants, who were numerous. He drank a cup of tea, but did not approve of the taste. Captain Wilson availed himself of this opportunity to obtain permission from the king to build a vessel, in order to convey the crew to some European settlement; and high-

ly gratified him by causing a party of men to be drawn up, and fire three vollies. This occasioned such hooting and chattering, as equalled in noise the report of the pieces.

Captain Wilson dressed the king in a silk coat and blue trowsers. He was extremely well made, but had lost his nose, whether in battle, or from a scrophulous disease, which is prevalent there, was not known.

Arra Kooker, one of the king's brothers, requested a white shirt, and as soon as it was given him, he put it on, in transports of joy, which he indicated by dancing and jumping, and in forming a humorous contrast between his shirt and his skin. This prince had a great propensity to mimicry, and often amused our people by taking off their manners, but with so much good nature, that no one could feel the least offence. He entertained a great partiality for their Newfoundland dog, which he often fed; till at length the creature felt a partiality for him, and, at his appearance, would jump, bark, leap, and play a variety of tricks. Arra Kooker would often imitate him in the same mode of salutation, by barking, jumping, &c. which could not fail of exciting the risible faculties. This prince was seemingly about forty years of age, short in stature, but so plump and fat, that he was almost as broad as he was long.

After various ceremonies had passed, the captain presented his majesty with a scarlet coat; who then making signs to go on shore, jumped into the water, and swam to land.

When the captain, and several officers, reached Pelew, on a visit to the king, they came into a large square pavement, round which were several houses, and was conducted into one that stood in the center of one of the sides. Out of this house issued a number of women, who were waiting to see those new beings the English. Those our people were given to understand were the wives of some of the Rupacks, or great officers of state. They were rather fairer than the rest of the women, had some little ornaments about them, and their faces and breasts were rubbed over with turmeric.

The king, and one of his brothers, led his guests into this house; the women then returned, and received them with much joy, presenting their company with cocoa nuts and sweet drink, which all sat down and partook of. The ladies also seated themselves, and taking a parcel of leaves, began to make nets, an employment in which they pass great part of their time. The king informed his guests that his house was to be their abode as long as they remained at Pelew, and that there they were to sleep. After this he rose up, previously apologizing to the captain for retiring, saying he was going to bathe.

Soon after a message came to Raa Hook from the queen, requesting that she might see the English at her dwelling. They attended him thither, and observed immediately before it a rail, on which were some tame pigeons, tied by the leg. This is a bird held in such estimation in those islands, that none but rupacks and their families are allowed to eat them.

As they approached, the queen opened her window, and spoke to Raa Hook, to desire the English would sit down on the pavement before her, which being complied with, a number of attendants brought out yams, cocoa nuts, and sweet drink. While they were partaking of these, the queen asked Raa Hook many questions about our people, of whom she took very great notice, and wished some of them would come close to the window, and draw up their coat sleeves, that she might see the colour of their skins. After she had viewed them attentively, and asked, through Raa Hook, as many circumstances respecting them as she thought she could with propriety obtrude, she signified that she would no longer trespass on their time, by detaining them; so they rose and took their leave.

Raa Hook now took them to his own house, where they were welcomed without any parade. His wife, among

among other things, gave them a broiled pigeon, a delicacy that, as before observed, only falls to the share of the dignified.

There the character of the prince appeared in a new and interesting light: his children encompassed him, and climbing to his knees, fondly caressed their father, while his supreme pleasure appeared to be in rolling and tossing them about. This domestic scene, however, so much occupied the minds of the captain and officers, that it was dark before they thought of retiring. Raa Hook begged they would dispense with his attendance, and ordered the Malay to conduct them to their destined habitation, where they found some fish for supper, sent by the king. Though the night proved tempestuous, their house was so well thatched that the rain could not penetrate.

The king, whose name was Abba Thulle, having signified to captain Wilson his pleasure of tendering to him the island where the English resided, as a present, and informed him that they distinguished it by the name of Oroolong, in order to announce possession of it, the British pennant was hoisted, and three volleys of small arms fired. To this island the captain would have returned the day following, (the night he passed with the officers under the roof of the hospitable prince Raa Hook,) if the weather had not turned unfavourable. They therefore took a ramble farther into the country, where the lands appeared to be pretty well cultivated, and the villages full of inhabitants. They observed that the lower orders of the women were busied in looking after the yam plantations, which were mostly in swampy ground. Others they found employed in making baskets and mats, and in nursing their children.

The employment of the men seemed to be that of gathering cocoa nuts, felling trees, and making spears and darts, the chief warlike instruments of the Pelewans. In the use of these they were remarkably expert, as they afforded abundant proof in divers engagements with the subjects of a neighbouring prince; in which they were aided by a select party of the English at the request of Abba Thulle, and obtained a complete victory by dint of the superior force of our fire arms.

As the English had been useful in their assistance against the enemy, the king was deliberating what present or compensation he should make to the English leader. After a while he sent him, as a particular mark of his gratitude and esteem, two lovely young women. Captain Wilson, who was a grave sober man, and had his son with him, a youth about seventeen, was particularly embarrassed. He, however, thought proper to send them back again. The king of Pelew was exceedingly unhappy that his present was not accepted, and concluded, in his own mind, that their being rejected was owing to their not being sufficiently young. To obviate this objection, after some strong parental struggles, he actually sent captain Wilson his own daughter, a sweet little girl, who was no more than twelve years old. She was of course returned also: but it was extremely difficult to satisfy the king that in this rejection of his presents no insult was intended.

The death of Raa Hook's valiant son afforded our people an opportunity of being acquainted with their funeral ceremonies. Having been invited to an entertainment by one of the rupacks, they were surprized, when the repast was ended, at hearing the doleful lamentations of women at some distance; and going to the place from whence the sound proceeded, they observed a concourse of females following a dead body, held up in a mat, and laid on a sort of bier, made of bamboos, carried by four men on their shoulders. These were the only males in company. Our people followed to the place of interment, where the body was deposited without any religious ceremony, the bearers filling up the grave with their hands and feet, while the women knelt down, and again vented the most piercing cries, at times indicating as if their phrenzy would lead them to tear up the corpse.

The marriages of these people are simply a mutual contract between the sexes, which is held inviolate. A plurality of wives is allowed; but they have seldom more than two. They had no established religion, but seemed to possess an innate confidence of the efficacy of virtue, and the temporal advantages arising from moral rectitude.

After three months stay on the island, our countrymen were enabled, by the most persevering toil, but still more by the beneficence and integrity of the natives, to build a vessel out of the fragments of their wreck. In this, after leaving one of the crew, named Madan Blanchard, who requested permission to remain on the island, they departed on the 12th of November, and arrived at Macao on the 30th of the same month, whence they afterwards proceeded to England.

We cannot omit mentioning at the close of this account, that a short time before the departure of our people, the king of Pelew requested captain Wilson to take with him his second son, whose name was Lee Boo, to England, expressing a patriotic hope that he would acquire many things which, at his return, would greatly benefit his native country. This youth, who added, to an active and penetrating mind, the most ingenious and endearing manners, was treated with the greatest care and attention by captain Wilson, and was advancing rapidly in a knowledge of the English language, and of writing, when he fell a victim to the small pox, at the age of 20 years. In the extremity of his last illness he made use of these words to a person who came over with him. "When you go to Pelew, tell Abba Thulle that his son take much drink to make small-pox go away, but he die;—that the captain and mother (meaning Mrs. Wilson) very kind;—all English very good men;—was much sorry I could not speak to the king my father the number of fine things the English had got."

He was buried in Rotherhithe church, where a tomb was erected to his memory by the East-India Company, with the following inscription:

TO THE MEMORY
Of Prince LEE BOO,
A Native of the Pelew, or Pelos Islands;
And son to ABBA THULLE,
Rupack or King of the Island COOROORAA;
Who departed this Life on the 17th of December, 1784,
Aged 20 years,
This stone is inscribed
By the Honourable United East-India Company,
As a testimony of esteem for the humane and kind
treatment afforded by his father to the crew of their
ship
The Antelope, Captain Wilson,
Which was wrecked off that island,
On the night of the 9th of August, 1783.

Stop reader, stop!—let NATURE claim a tear;
A Prince of *mine*—LEE BOO lies bury'd here.

With respect to the affairs of the east, no particular event has occurred since the commencement of our work. All that we have to observe is, that earl Cornwallis has been appointed to the supreme government in India, and that, according to the latest accounts, those regions enjoy the blessings of peace.

HISTORY OF THE RISE AND PROGRESS OF THE ENGLISH EAST INDIA COMPANY.

The capital commercial object in England being the East India company, it demands our attention to its rise and progress. The first idea of it was formed in the reign of queen Elizabeth; but it has since admitted of vast alterations. Though the establishment of this company was vindicated in the clearest manner by several

several able advocates, the partiality which the duke of York, afterwards James II. had for his favourite African trade, the losses it sustained in wars with the Dutch, and the revolutions which had happened in the affairs of Hindostan, damped the ardour of the public to support it, so that at the time of the revolution, when the war broke out with France, it was in a very indifferent situation. This was, in a great measure, owing to its having no parliamentary sanction, whereby its stock was often sold for one half less than its real value, therefore it was resolved that a new company should be established under the authority of parliament.

The opposition given to all the public spirited measures of king William, by faction, rendered this proposal a matter of vast difficulty; but at last, after many parliamentary enquiries, the new subscription prevailed, and the subscribers obtained an act of parliament in their favour. The old company, however, retained a vast interest, both in the parliament, and the nation, and the act being found in some respects defective, so violent a struggle between the two companies arose, that, in the year 1702, they were united by an indenture tripartite. In 1708, from some important public considerations, the company obtained a prolongation of its exclusive privileges, and a new charter was granted them under the title of "The United Company of Merchants trading to the East Indies." Its exclusive right of trade was continued from time to time, and, from considerations similar to the former, its privileges were extended; yet the interest of their capital was reduced to three per cent. and called the India three per cent. annuities.

Those annuities are different from the trading stock of the company, the proprietors of which, instead of receiving a regular annuity, have, according to their different shares, a dividend of the profits arising from the company's trade; and that dividend rises or falls according to the circumstances of the company, either real or pretended. Out of the body of directors are chosen several committees, who have the peculiar inspection of certain branches in the company's business. These have under them a secretary, cashier, clerks and warehouse-keepers.

The amazing territorial acquisitions of this company must necessarily be attended with a proportionable increase of trade, and this, joined to the dissensions among its managers both at home and abroad, have, of late, greatly engaged the attention of the legislature, inasmuch that a restriction has occasionally been laid on their dividends for a certain time.

In November, 1783, a bill was brought forward by Mr. Fox, then secretary of state, for new regulating the company, under the supposition of the incompetency of the directors, and the insolvent state of the com-

pany. The bill passed the commons, but an opposition being formed against it in the house of lords, after long and elaborate debates, it was thrown out. Various attempts for a new bill were afterwards made by Mr. Pitt, and the new ministry, but failed, which occasioned, with other disputes on privilege, a dissolution of the house of commons.

A bill passed at the close of the sessions of 1784, including the three following particulars.

First, the establishing a power of controul in this kingdom, by which the executive power in India is to be connected with that over the rest of the empire.

Secondly, the regulating the company's servants in India, in order to remedy the evils which have prevailed there.

Thirdly, the providing for the punishment of those persons who shall nevertheless continue in the practice of crimes which have brought disgrace upon the company.

Various opinions are formed concerning this bill. We avoid pronouncing any of our own, submitting matters of this kind to the determination of our readers.

Several important powers have lately been embroiled. Formidable armaments have been raised by the Russians and Imperialists in conjunction against the Turks. Many skirmishes, and some engagements by land and sea, have taken place, and terminated with various success. Much prowess has been evinced by the Turks, in sustaining sieges, and repelling vigorous assaults, against foes who also, on their part, have displayed courage and resolution.

The dissensions between the king and parliaments of France, which we mentioned at the close of our history of that kingdom, have continued to prevail; but, from the present appearance of things, the monarch seems disposed to lenient measures, and to adopt a system of government more popular than the former.

Sweden has commenced hostilities against Russia, to retaliate former wrongs, and, for the short time it has waged war, given proof of that hardness and intrepidity for which it has been heretofore famous. Denmark has armed; but, as yet, made no decisive declaration.

Great Britain has hitherto continued a neutrality; and it cannot but be the desire of every friend to humanity, in every nation and country, that an accommodation between the belligerent powers may be effected, the destructive sword of war sheathed, and tranquillity restored throughout Europe, and every other part of the globe.

ORIGIN and PROGRESS of the ART of NAVIGATION.

VARIOUS opinions have been formed respecting the origin of that most important of arts, navigation, to which a diversity of events might probably have given birth. The sea-coasts, in many places, are full of islands, at no great distance from the continent. Curiosity would naturally inspire men with an inclination to pass over into these islands. As this passage would not appear either very long, or very dangerous, they would attempt it. Success in one of these attempts would encourage to a second. Pliny relates, that anciently they sailed only among the islands, and that on rafts.

Fishing, to which several nations applied themselves in the earliest ages, might also contribute to the origin of navigation. We are, however, most inclined to think, that the first ideas of this art were owing to those nations which were seated near the mouths of the rivers, where they fell into the sea. As they sailed upon these rivers, they would sometimes be carried out to sea, either

by the current, by storm, or even by design. They would be terrified at first at the violence of the waves, and the dangers with which they threatened them. But when they had got over these first terrors, they would soon be sensible of the great advantages which the sea might procure them, and, of consequence, would endeavour to find out the means of sailing upon it.

In whatever way mankind became familiar with that terrible element, it is certain that the first essays in navigation were made in the most ancient times. Moses informs us, that the grandsons of Japhet passed over into the islands near the continent, and took possession of them. It is also an undoubted fact, that the colonies very soon sailed from Egypt into Greece. Sanchoniatho ascribes the invention of the art of building ships, and the glory of undertaking sea-voyages, to the Caberites. The ancient traditions of the Phœnicians make the Caberites cotemporary with the Titans.

Experience soon convincing them, that ships, designed for navigating the seas, ought to be of a different construction from those intended for rivers, they would make it their study to give such a form and solidity to ships designed for the sea, as would enable them to resist the impetuosity of its waves.

They would next endeavour to find out a method of guiding and directing them with ease and safety. Sculls and oars were the only instruments that occurred to them for some time. It must have been long before they thought of adding the helm. The ancients imagined, that it was the fins of fishes which first suggested the idea of oars, and that the hint of the helm was taken from observing how birds directed their flight by their tails. The shape of ships, excepting the sails, seems to be copied from that of fishes: what the fins and tails are to fishes, that the oars and helm are to ships. But these are only conjectures more or less probable, and not worth examining to the bottom.

The action of the wind, whose effects are so sensible and so frequent, might soon suggest the use of sails. But the manner of adjusting and managing them was more difficult, and would not be so soon discovered. This, in all probability, was the very last part of the construction of ships which was found out; and we are confirmed in this opinion by the practice of the savages, and other rude nations, who make use only of oars, but have no sails. It would be the same in the first ages. The first navigators only coasted, and cautiously avoided losing sight of land. In such circumstances sails would have been more dangerous than useful. It required the experience of several ages to teach navigators the art of employing the wind in the direction of ships.

If we believe, however, the ancient traditions of the Egyptians, this art of using the wind, by means of masts and sails, was exceeding ancient. They give the honour of this discovery to Isis. But over and above the little credit which is due to the greatest part of the history of that princess, it evidently appears that this discovery cannot be ascribed to the Egyptians.

Men must soon have endeavoured to find out some method of stopping ships at sea, and keeping them firm at their moorings. They would at first make use of various expedients for this purpose, such as large stones, hampers or sacks full of sand, or other heavy bodies. These they fixed to ropes, and threw into the sea. These methods would be sufficient in the first ages, when the vessels they used were only small and light barks. But as navigation improved, and larger ships were built, some other machine became necessary. We know not at what time, or by whom, the anchor, that machine at once so simple and so admirable, was invented. We find nothing certain on this subject in ancient authors. Only they agree in placing this discovery in ages greatly posterior to those we are now examining. They ascribe this invention to several different persons. The anchor, like several other machines, might be found out in many different countries, much about the same time. It is certain that the first anchors were not made of iron, but of stone, or even of wood. These last were loaded with lead. We are told this by several writers, and amongst others by Diodorus. This author relates, that the Phœnicians, in their first voyage into Spain, having amassed more silver than their ships could contain, took the lead from their anchors, and put silver in its place. We may observe further, that the first anchors had only one fluke. It was not till many ages after that Anacharsis invented one with two.

All these different kinds of anchors are still in use in some countries. The inhabitants of Iceland, and of Bander Congo, use a large stone with a hole in the middle, and a stick thrust through it. In China, Japan, Siam, and the Manillas, they have only wooden anchors, to which they tie great stones. In the kingdom of Cali-

cut they are of stone. The ignorance of the first ages, and of many nations to this day, of the art of working iron, has been the occasion of all these rude and clumsy contrivances.

Though the first navigators coasted along the shores, and took all possible pains not to lose sight of land, yet, in the very first ages, they must frequently have been driven off to sea by storms. The confusion and uncertainty they found themselves in when these accidents happened would put them upon studying some method of finding where they were in these circumstances. They would soon be sensible, that the inspection of the heavenly bodies was the only thing that could afford them any direction. It was in this manner, probably, that astronomy came to be applied to navigation.

From the first moment men began to observe the motions of the heavenly bodies, they would take notice, that in that part of the heavens where the sun never passes there are certain stars which appear constantly every night. It was easy to discover the position of these stars in respect of our earth. They appear always on the left hand of the observer, whose face is turned on the east. Navigators were soon sensible, that this discovery might be of great advantage to them, as these stars constantly pointed out the same part of the world. When they happened to be driven from their course, they found, that, in order to recover it, they had only to direct their ship in such a manner, as to bring her into her former position, with respect to those stars which they saw regularly every night.

Antiquity gives the honour of this discovery to the Phœnicians, a people equally industrious and enterprising. The Great Bear would probably be the first guide which these ancient navigators made choice of. This constellation is easily distinguished, both by the brightness and peculiar arrangement of the stars which compose it. Being near the pole, it hardly ever sets with respect to those places which the Phœnicians frequented. We know not in what age navigators first began to observe the northern stars, for the direction of their course; but it must have been in very ancient times. The Great Bear is mentioned in the book of Job, who seems to have conversed much with merchants and navigators. The name by which that constellation was known among the ancient inhabitants of Greece, and the tales which they related about its origin, prove it was observed for the direction of navigators in very remote ages.

But the observation of the stars in the Great Bear was a very imperfect and uncertain rule for the direction of a ship's course. The truth is, this constellation points out the pole only in a very vague and confused manner. Its head is not sufficiently near it, and its extremities are more than 40 degrees distant from it. This vast extent occasions very different aspects, both at different hours of the night in the same season of the year, and in the same hour in different seasons. This variation would be considerably increased, when it came to be referred to the horizon, to which the course of navigators must necessarily be referred. They have made an allowance for this variation by gues, which could not but occasion great mistakes and errors in those ages, when they were guided only by practice instead of geometrical rules and tables, which were not invented till many ages after.

It must have been long before navigation arrived at any tolerable degree of perfection. There is no art or profession which requires so much thought and knowledge. The art of sailing is of all others the most complicated; its most common operation depends upon various branches in different sciences. It appears, however, that even in the ages we are now examining, some nations had made some progress in maritime affairs. These discoveries can be ascribed to nothing but that love to commerce with which these nations were animated, and their great ardour for the advancement of it; the like of which continuing in future ages, has brought the art of navigation to its present state of perfection.

A

GENERAL TABLE OF COINS,

INCLUDING

All the MONIES, *real* or *imaginary*, whether actually used in Commercial and Domestic Affairs, in making Payments, &c. or Ideally employed in keeping Accompts, in all the Countries of the KNOWN WORLD.

Note, To the Imaginary Monies, which are employed for the greater Facility of keeping Accompts, this Mark * is prefixed.

** All Fractions in this TABLE are Parts of an English Penny.

ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

*London, Bristol, Liverpool, &c.
Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, &c.*
equal to

		£.	s.	d.	
A farthing	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{4}$
2 Farthings	a Halfpenny	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
2 Halfpence	a Penny	0	0	1	
4 Pence	a Groat	0	0	4	
6 Pence	a Half Shilling	0	0	6	
12 Pence	a Shilling	0	1	0	
5 Shillings	a Crown	0	5	0	
20 Shillings	*a Pound	1	0	0	
21 Shillings	a Guinea	1	1	0	

IRELAND.

Dublin, Cork, Londonderry, &c.

A Farthing	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{4}$
2 Farthings	a Halfpenny	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
2 Halfpence	*a Penny	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{2}$
6 $\frac{1}{2}$ Pence	a Half Shilling	0	0	6	
12 Pence	*a Shilling Irish	0	0	11	$\frac{3}{4}$
13 Pence	a Shilling	0	1	0	
65 Pence	a Crown	0	5	0	
20 Shillings	*a Pound Irish	0	18	5	$\frac{1}{2}$
22 $\frac{1}{2}$ Shillings	a Guinea	1	1	0	

FLANDERS AND BRABANT.

Ghent, Ostend, &c. Antwerp, Brussels, &c.

* Pening	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{16}$
4 Penings	an Urche	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{4}$
8 Penings	*a Grote	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
2 Grotes	a Petard	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
6 Petards	*a Scalin	0	0	5	$\frac{1}{4}$
7 Petards	a Scalin	0	0	6	$\frac{1}{2}$
40 Grotes	*a Florin	0	1	6	
17 $\frac{1}{2}$ Scalins	a Ducat	0	9	3	
240 Grotes	*a Pound Flem.	0	9	0	

HOLLAND AND ZEALAND.

Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Middleburg, Flushing, &c.

* Pening	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{16}$
8 Penings	*a Grote	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
2 Grotes	a Stiver	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{2}$
6 Stivers	a Scalin	0	0	6	$\frac{1}{2}$
20 Stivers	a Guilder	0	1	9	
50 Stivers	a Rix-dollar	0	4	4	$\frac{1}{4}$
60 Stivers	a Dry Guilder	0	5	3	
105 Stivers	a Ducat	0	9	3	
6 Guilders	*a Pound Flem.	0	10	6	

No. 87.

HAMBURG.

Altena, Lubec, Bremen, &c.

		£.	s.	d.	
*A Tryling	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{16}$
2 Trylings	*a Sexling	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{8}$
2 Sexlings	a Fening	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{4}$
12 Fenings	a Shilling Lub	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{2}$
16 Shillings	*a Marc	0	1	6	
2 Marcs	a Slet-dollar	0	3	0	
3 Marcs	a Rix-dollar	0	4	6	
6 $\frac{1}{2}$ Marcs	a Ducat	0	9	4	$\frac{1}{2}$
120 Shillings	*a Pound Flem.	0	11	3	

HANOVER.

Lunenburgh, Zell, &c.

* Fening	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{16}$
3 Fenings	a Dreyer	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{8}$
8 Fenings	a Marien	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{4}$
12 Fenings	a Grosh	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{2}$
8 Groshen	a Half Gulden	0	1	2	
16 Groshen	a Gulden	0	2	4	
24 Groshen	*a Rix-dollar	0	3	6	
32 Groshen	a Double Gulden	0	4	8	
4 Guldens	a Ducat	0	9	2	

SAXONY AND HOLSTEIN.

Dresden, Leipzig, &c. Wismar, Keil, &c.

* An Heller	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{16}$
2 Hellers	a Fening	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{8}$
6 Hellers	a Dreyer	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{4}$
16 Hellers	a Marien	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{2}$
12 Fenings	a Groth	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{2}$
16 Groshen	a Gould	0	2	4	
24 Groshen	*a Rix-dollar	0	3	6	
32 Groshen	a Specie-dollar	0	4	8	
4 Goulds	a Ducat	0	9	4	

BRANDENBURGH AND POMERANIA.

Berlin, Potsdam, &c. Stetin, &c.

* A Denier	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{16}$
9 Deniers	a Polchen	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
18 Deniers	a Grosh	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
3 Polchens	an Abras	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
20 Groshen	*a Marc	0	0	9	$\frac{1}{2}$
30 Groshen	a Florin	0	1	2	
90 Groshen	*a Rix-dollar	0	3	6	
108 Groshen	an Albertus	0	4	2	
8 Florins	a Ducat	0	9	4	

11 11

COLOGN.

EUROPE, Northern Parts.

EUROPE, Northern Parts.
GERMANY.

G E N E V A.

Pekay, Bonne, &c.

equal to

£. s. d.

A Denier	-	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{24}$
2 Deniers	a Denier current	0	0	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{12}$
12 Deniers	a Small Sol	0	0	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{6}$
12 Den. cur.	a Sol current	0	0	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{3}$
12 Small Sols	*a Florin	-	-	0	0	4	$\frac{1}{2}$
20 Sols cur.	*a Livre current	0	1	3			
10 $\frac{1}{2}$ Florins	a Patacon	-	-	0	3	11	$\frac{1}{2}$
15 $\frac{1}{2}$ Florins	a Croifade	-	-	0	5	10	$\frac{1}{2}$
24 Florins	a Ducat	-	-	0	9	0	

Lisle, Cambray, Valenciennes, &c.

A Denier	-	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{24}$
12 Deniers	a Sol	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{12}$
15 Deniers	*a Patard	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{8}$
15 Patards	*a Piette	-	-	0	0	9	$\frac{1}{8}$
20 Sols	a Livre Tourniso	0	10				
20 Patard	*a Florin	-	-	0	1	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
60 Sols	an Ecu. of Ex.	0	2	6			
10 $\frac{1}{2}$ Livres	a Ducat	-	-	0	9	3	
24 Livres	a Louis d'Or	1	0	0			

Dunkirk, St. Omer's, St. Quintin, &c.

A Denier	-	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{24}$
12 Deniers	a Sol	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{12}$
15 Deniers	*a Patard	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{8}$
15 Sols	*a Piette	-	-	0	0	7	$\frac{1}{8}$
20 Sols	a Livre Tourniso	0	10				
3 Livres	an Ecu of Ex.	0	2	6			
24 Livres	a Louis d'Or	1	0	0			
24 Livres	a Guinea	-	-	1	1	0	
30 $\frac{1}{2}$ Livres	a Moeda	-	-	1	7	0	

Paris, Lyons, Marseilles, &c. Bourdeaux, Bayonne, &c.

A Denier	-	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{24}$
3 Deniers	a Liard	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{8}$
2 Liards	a Dardene	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{4}$
12 Deniers	a Sol	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
20 Sols	*a Livre Tourniso	0	10				
60 Sols	an Ecu of Ex.	0	2	6			
6 Livres	an Ecu	-	-	0	5	0	
10 Livres	*a Pistole	-	-	0	8	4	
24 Livres	a Louis d'Or	1	0	0			

P O R T U G A L.

Lisbon, Oporto, &c.

* A Re	-	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{200}$
10 Rez	a Half Vintin	0	0	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{20}$
20 Rez	a Vintin	-	-	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{10}$
5 Vintins	a Testoon	-	-	0	0	6	$\frac{1}{2}$
4 Testoons	a Crusade of Ex.	0	2	3			
24 Vintins	a New Crusade	0	2	8			$\frac{1}{2}$
10 Testoons	*a Milre	-	-	0	5	7	$\frac{1}{2}$
48 Testoons	a Moeda	-	-	1	7	0	
64 Testoons	a Joanes	-	-	1	16	0	

Madrid, Cadix, Seville, &c. New Plate.

A Maravedie	-	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{12}$
2 Maravedies	a Quartil	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{6}$
34 Maravedies	a Rial	-	-	0	0	5	$\frac{1}{2}$
2 Rials	a Pistarine	-	-	0	0	10	$\frac{1}{2}$
8 Rials	*a Pistare of Ex.	0	3	7			
10 Rials	a Dollar	-	-	0	4	6	
375 Maravedies	*a Ducat of Ex.	0	4	11			$\frac{1}{2}$
32 Rials	*a Pistole of Ex.	0	14	4			
36 Rials	a Pistole	-	-	0	16	9	

Gibraltar, Malaga, Denia, &c. Valon.

equal to

£. s. d.

*A Maravedie	-	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{12}$
2 Maravedies	an Ochavo	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{6}$
4 Maravedies	a Quartil	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{3}$
34 Maravedies	*a Rial Velon	0	0	2			$\frac{1}{2}$
15 Rials	*a Piastra of Ex.	0	3	7			
512 Maravedies	a Piastra	-	-	0	3	7	
60 Rials	*a Pistole of Ex.	0	14	4			
2048 Maravedies	a Pistole of Ex.	0	14	4			
70 Rials	a Pistole	-	-	0	16	9	

Barcelona, Saragossa, Valencia, &c. Old Plate.

A Maravedie	-	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{12}$
16 Maravedies	a Soldo	-	-	0	0	3	
2 Soldos	a Rial Old Plate	0	0	6			$\frac{1}{2}$
20 Soldos	*a Libra	-	-	0	5	7	$\frac{1}{2}$
24 Soldos	*a Ducat	-	-	0	6	9	
16 Soldos	*a Dollar	-	-	0	4	6	
22 Soldos	*a Ducat	-	-	0	6	2	$\frac{1}{2}$
21 Soldos	*a Ducat	-	-	0	5	10	$\frac{1}{2}$
60 Soldos	a Pistole	-	-	0	16	9	

GENOA. Novi, St. Remo, &c.

CORSICA. Bastia, &c.

A Denari	-	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{20}$
12 Denari	a Soldi	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{5}$
4 Soldi	a Chevalet	-	-	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{5}$
20 Soldi	*a Lire	-	-	0	0	8	$\frac{1}{5}$
30 Soldi	a Testoon	-	-	0	1	0	$\frac{1}{5}$
5 Lires	a Croifade	-	-	0	3	7	
115 Soldi	*a Pezzo of Ex.	0	4	2			
6 Testoons	a Genouine	-	-	0	6	2	
20 Lires	a Pistole	-	-	0	14	4	

PIEDMONT, SAVOY AND SARDINIA.

Turin, Chambery, Cagliari, &c.

A Denari	-	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{20}$
3 Denari	a Quatrini	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{6}$
12 Denari	a Soldi	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{5}$
12 Soldi	*a Florin	-	-	0	0	9	
20 Soldi	*a Lire	-	-	0	1	3	
6 Florins	a Scudi	-	-	0	4	6	
7 Florins	a Ducatoon	-	-	0	5	3	
13 Lires	a Pistole	-	-	0	16	3	
16 Lires	a Louis d'Or	1	0	0			

Milan, Modena, Parma, Pavia, &c.

A Denari	-	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{20}$
12 Denari	a Soldi	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{5}$
20 Soldi	*a Lire	-	-	0	0	8	$\frac{1}{5}$
115 Soldi	a Scudi current	0	4	2			$\frac{1}{5}$
117 Soldi	*a Scudi of Ex.	0	4	3			
6 Lires	a Philip	-	-	0	4	4	
22 Lires	a Pistole	-	-	0	16	0	
23 Lires	a Spanish Pistole	0	16	9			

Leghorn, Florence, &c.

A Denari	-	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{20}$
4 Denari	a Quatrini	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{5}$
12 Denari	a Soldi	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{5}$
5 Quatrini	a Craca	-	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
8 Cracas	a Quilo	-	-	0	0	5	$\frac{1}{10}$
20 Soldi	*a Lire	-	-	0	0	8	$\frac{1}{5}$
6 Lires	a Piastra of Ex.	0	4	2			
7 $\frac{1}{2}$ Lires	a Ducat	-	-	0	5	2	$\frac{1}{5}$
22 Lires	a Pistole	-	-	0	15	6	

R O M E

R O M E.

Civita Vecchia, Ancona, &c.

		equal to	£.	s.	d.
A Quatrini	-	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
5 Quatrini	a Bayoc	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{4}$
8 Bayocs	a Julio	-	0	0	6
10 Bayocs	a Stampd Julio	-	0	0	6
24 Bayocs	a Testoon	-	0	1	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
10 Julios	a Crown current	-	0	5	0
12 Julios	*a Crown stampd	-	0	6	0
18 Julios	a Chequin	-	0	9	0
31 Julios	a Pistole	-	0	15	6

N A P L E S.

Gaieta, Capua, &c.

A Quatrini	-	-	0	0	0 $\frac{2}{5}$
3 Quatrini	a Grain	-	0	0	0 $\frac{2}{5}$
10 Grains	a Carlin	-	0	0	4
40 Quatrini	a Paulo	-	0	0	5 $\frac{1}{3}$
20 Grains	a Tarin	-	0	0	8
40 Grains	a Testoon	-	0	1	4
100 Grains	a Ducat of Ex.	-	0	3	4
23 Tarins	a Pistole	-	0	15	4
25 Tarins	a Span. Pistole	-	1	16	9

SICILY AND MALTA.

Palermo, Messina, &c.

A Pichila	-	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{3}$
6 Pichili	a Grain	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{3}$
8 Pichili	a Ponti	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{3}$
10 Grains	a Carlin	-	0	0	1 $\frac{1}{3}$
20 Grains	a Tarin	-	0	0	3 $\frac{1}{3}$
6 Tarins	*a Florin of Ex.	-	0	1	6 $\frac{1}{3}$
13 Tarins	a Ducat of Ex.	-	0	3	4
60 Carlins	*an Ounce	-	0	7	8 $\frac{1}{3}$
2 Ounces	a Pistole	-	0	15	4

Bologna, Ravenna, &c.

A Quatrini	-	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
6 Quatrini	a Bayoc	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{4}$
10 Bayocs	a Julio	-	0	0	6
20 Bayocs	*a Lire	-	0	1	0
3 Julios	a Testoon	-	0	1	6
85 Bayocs	a Scudi of Ex.	-	0	4	3
105 Bayocs	a Ducatoon	-	0	5	3
100 Bayocs	a Crown	-	0	5	0
31 Julios	a Pistole	-	0	15	6

V E N I C E.

Bergham, &c.

A Picoli	-	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{3}$
12 Picoli	a Soldi	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{3}$
6 $\frac{1}{2}$ Soldi	*a Gros	-	0	0	2 $\frac{1}{6}$
18 Soldi	a Jule	-	0	0	6
20 Soldi	*a Lire	-	0	0	6 $\frac{1}{3}$
3 Jules	a Testoon	-	0	1	6
124 Soldi	a Ducat current	-	0	3	5 $\frac{1}{4}$
24 Gros	*a Ducat of Ex.	-	0	4	4
17 Lires	a Chequin	-	0	9	2

T U R K E Y.

Morca, Candia, Cyprus, &c.

A Mangar	-	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
4 Mangars	*an Asper	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{4}$
3 Aspers	a Parac	-	0	0	1 $\frac{1}{4}$
5 Aspers	a Bestie	-	0	0	3
10 Aspers	an Offic	-	0	0	6
20 Aspers	a Solota	-	0	1	0
80 Aspers	*a Piafre	-	0	4	0
100 Aspers	a Caragrouch	-	0	5	0
10 Solotas	an Xeriff	-	0	10	0

A R A B I A.

Medina, Mecca, Mocha, &c.

		equal to	£.	s.	d.
A Carret	-	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
5 $\frac{1}{4}$ Carrets	a Caveer	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
7 Carrets	a Comashee	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
80 Carrets	a Larin	-	0	0	10 $\frac{1}{16}$
18 Comashees	an Abyfs	-	0	1	4 $\frac{1}{16}$
60 Comashees	*a Piafre	-	0	4	6
80 Caveers	a Dollar	-	0	4	6
100 Comashees	a Sequin	-	0	7	6
80 Larins	*a Tomond	-	3	7	6

P E R S I A.

Ispahan, Ormus, Gombroon, &c.

A Coz	-	-	0	0	0 $\frac{2}{5}$
4 Coz	a Bisti	-	0	0	1 $\frac{2}{5}$
10 Coz	a Shahee	-	0	0	4
20 Coz	a Mamooda	-	0	0	8
25 Coz	a Larin	-	0	0	10
4 Shahees	an Abashee	-	0	1	4
5 Abashees	an Or	-	0	6	8
12 Abashees	a Bovello	-	0	16	0
50 Abashees	*a Tomond	-	3	6	8

G U Z Z U R A T.

Surat, Cambay, &c.

A Pecka	-	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
2 Peckas	a Piece	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
4 Pieces	a Fanam	-	0	0	1 $\frac{1}{16}$
5 Pieces	a Viz	-	0	0	2 $\frac{1}{16}$
16 Pieces	an Ana	-	0	0	7 $\frac{1}{16}$
4 Anas	a Rupee	-	0	2	6
2 Rupees	an English Crown	-	0	5	0
14 Anas	a Pagoda	-	0	8	9
4 Pagodas	a Gold Rupee	-	1	15	0

Bombay, Dabul, &c.

*ABudgroom	-	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
2 Budgrooms	*a Ree	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
5 Rez	a Piece	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
16 Pieces	a Laree	-	0	0	5 $\frac{1}{16}$
20 Pieces	a Quarter	-	0	0	6 $\frac{1}{16}$
240 Rez	a Xeraphimo	-	0	1	4 $\frac{1}{16}$
4 Quarters	a Rupee	-	0	2	3
14 Quarters	a Pagoda	-	0	8	0
60 Quarters	a Gold Rupee	-	1	15	0

Goa, Visapour, &c.

*A Rez	-	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
2 Rze	a Bazaraco	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
20 Rez	a Vintin	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
4 Vintins	a Laree	-	0	0	5 $\frac{1}{16}$
3 Larees	a Xeraphim	-	0	1	4
42 Vintins	a Tangu	-	0	4	6
4 Tangus	a Paru	-	0	18	0
8 Tangus	a Gold Rupee	-	1	15	0

C O R O M A N D E L.

Madrafs, Pondicherry, &c.

A Cash	-	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
5 Cash	a Viz	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
2 Viz	a Pice	-	0	0	0 $\frac{1}{16}$
6 Pieces	a Pical	-	0	0	2 $\frac{1}{16}$
8 Pieces	a Fanam	-	0	0	3 $\frac{1}{16}$
10 Fanams	a Rupee	-	0	2	6
2 Rupees	an Eng. Crown	-	0	5	0
36 Fanams	a Pagoda	-	0	8	9
4 Pagodas	a Gold Rupee	-	1	15	0

BENGAL.

B E N G A L.

Calicut, Calcutta, &c.

equal to

		£.	s.	d.	
A Piece	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
4 Pieces	a Fanam	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
6 Pieces	a Viz	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
12 Pieces	an Ana	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{2}$
10 Anas	a Fiano	0	1	6	$\frac{1}{2}$
16 Anas	a Rupee	0	2	6	$\frac{1}{2}$
2 Rupees	a French Ecu	0	5	0	
2 Rupees	an Eng. Crown	0	5	0	
56 Anas	a Pagoda	0	8	9	

S I A M.

Pegu, Malacca, Cambodia, Sumatra, Java, Borneo, &c.

A Cori	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
800 Cori	a Fettee	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
125 Fettees	a Sataleer	0	0	7	$\frac{1}{2}$
250 Fettees	a Soco	0	1	3	
500 Fettees	a Tatal	0	2	6	
900 Fettees	a Dollar	0	4	6	
2 Ticals	a Rial	0	5	0	
4 Soocos	an Ecu	0	5	0	
8 Sateleers	a Crown	0	5	0	

C H I N A.

Pekin, Canton, &c.

A Caxa	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
10 Caxa	a Candereen	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
10 Candareens	a Mace	0	0	8	
35 Candareens	a Rupee	0	2	6	
2 Rupees	a Dollar	0	4	6	
70 Candareens	a Rix-dollar	0	4	4	$\frac{1}{2}$
7 Maces	an Ecu	0	5	0	
2 Rupees	a Crown	0	5	0	
10 Maces	*a Tale	0	6	8	

J A P A N.

Jeddo, Meaco, &c.

A Piti	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
20 Pitis	a Mace	0	0	4	
15 Maces	an Oun. Silver	0	4	10	$\frac{1}{2}$
20 Maces	a Tale	0	6	8	
30 Maces	an Ingot	0	9	8	$\frac{1}{2}$
13 Ounces Silv.	an Oun. Gold	3	3	0	
2 Ounces Gold	a Japanese	6	6	0	
2 Japaneses	a Double	12	12	0	
21 Ounces Gold	*a Cattee	66	3	0	

E G Y P T.

Old and New Cairo, Alexandria, Sayde, &c.

An Asper	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
3 Aspers	a Medin	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{2}$
24 Medins	an Ital. Duc.	0	3	4	
80 Aspers	*a Piafter	0	4	0	
30 Medins	a Dollar	0	4	6	
96 Aspers	an Ecu	0	5	0	
32 Medins	a Crown	0	5	0	
200 Aspers	a Sultanin	0	10	0	
70 Medins	a Pargo Dol.	0	10	6	

B A R B A R Y.

Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, Una, &c.

An Asper	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
3 Aspers	a Medin	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{2}$
10 Aspers	a Rial old Plate	0	0	6	$\frac{1}{2}$
2 Rials	a Double	0	1	1	$\frac{1}{2}$
4 Doubles	a Dollar	0	4	6	
24 Medins	a Silv. Chequin	0	3	4	
30 Medins	a Dollar	0	4	6	
180 Aspers	a Zequin	0	8	10	
15 Doubles	a Pistole	0	16	9	

No. 87.

M O R O C C O.

Santa Cruz, Mequinez, Fez, Tangiers, Sallee, &c.

equal to

		£.	s.	d.	
A Fluce	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
24 Fluces	a Blanquil	0	0	2	
4 Blanquils	an Ounbe	0	0	8	
7 Blanquils	an Octavo	0	1	2	
14 Blanquils	a Quarto	0	2	4	
2 Quartos	a Medio	0	4	8	
28 Blanquils	a Dollar	0	4	6	
54 Blanquils	a Xequin	0	9	6	
100 Blanquils	a Pistole	0	16	9	

E N G L I S H.

Jamaica, Barbadoes, &c.

*Halfpenny	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
2 Halfpence	*a Penny	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
7½ Pence	a Bit	0	0	5	$\frac{1}{2}$
12 Pence	*a Shilling	0	0	8	$\frac{1}{2}$
75 Pence	a Dollar	0	4	6	
7 Shillings	a Crown	0	5	0	
20 Shillings	*a Pound	0	14	3	
24 Shillings	a Pistole	0	16	9	
30 Shillings	a Guinea	1	1	0	

F R E N C H.

St. Domingo, Martinico, &c.

*A Half Sol	-	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
2 Half Sols	*a Sol	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
7½ Sols	a Half Scalin	0	0	2	$\frac{1}{2}$
15 Sols	a Scalin	0	0	5	$\frac{1}{2}$
20 Sols	*a Livre	0	0	7	$\frac{1}{2}$
7 Livres	a Dollar	0	4	6	
8 Livres	an Ecu	0	4	10	$\frac{1}{2}$
26 Livres	a Pistole	0	16	9	
32 Livres	a Louis d'Or	1	0	0	

E N G L I S H.

Nova Scotia, New England, Virginia, &c.

*A Penny	-	0	0	1	
12 Pence	*a Shilling	0	1	0	
20 Shillings	*a Pound	1	0	0	

2 Pounds

3 Pounds

4 Pounds

5 Pounds

6 Pounds

7 Pounds

8 Pounds

9 Pounds

10 Pounds

The Value of the Currency alters according to the Plenty or Scarcity of Gold and Silver Coins that are imported.

Canada, Florida, Cayena, &c.

*A Denier	-	0	0	1	
12 Deniers	*a Sol.	0	0	1	
20 Sols	*a Livre.	1	0	0	

2 Livres

3 Livres

4 Livres

5 Livres

6 Livres

7 Livres

8 Livres

9 Livres

10 Livres

The Value of the Currency alters according to the Plenty or Scarcity of Gold and Silver Coins that are imported.

Note. For all the Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch, and Danish Dominions, either on the Continent or in the West Indies, see the Monies of the respective Nations.

A

NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE,

FROM THE MINUTEST OBSERVATION,

and Situations of the chief Cities, Towns, Seas, Gulphs, Bays, Streights, Capes, and other remarkable Places in the known World;

WITH

Their respective LATITUDES and LONGITUDES.

Towns.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarters.	Latitude. D. M.	Longitude. D. M.
A					
A Berdeen,	Aberdeenshire,	Scotland,	Europe	57 22 N.	1 20 W.
Acapulco,	Mexico,	North	America	17 10 N.	101 40 W.
Adriatic Sea, or between Gulph of Venice,		Italy and Turkey,	Europe, Mediterranean Sea.		
Adrianople	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe	42 00 N.	26 30 E.
Agra,	Agra,	East India,	Asia	26 42 N.	76 30 E.
Air,	Airshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55 30 N.	4 35 W.
Aleppo,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	35 42 N.	37 24 E.
Alexandria,	Lower Egypt,	Turkey,	Africa	31 10 N.	30 19 E.
Albany,	New-York,	North	America	42 48 N.	73 30 W.
ALGIERS,	Algiers,	Barbary,	Africa	36 50 N.	3 16 E.
Amboyna,	Amboyna Isle,	East India,	Asia	4 25 S.	127 25 E.
AMSTERDAM,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52 23 N.	5 04 E.
Annapolis,	Nova-Scotia,	North	America	45 00 N.	64 00 W.
ANNAPOLIS,	Maryland,	North	America	39 00 N.	76 50 W.
Antioch,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	36 30 N.	32 46 E.
Antwerp,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51 13 N.	4 29 E.
Archipelago,	Islands of,	Greece,	Europe, Mediterranean Sea.		
Archangel,	Dwina,	Russia,	Europe	64 30 N.	40 30 E.
Astracan,	Astracan,	Russia,	Asia	47 00 N.	52 00 E.
Athens,	Achaia,	Turkey,	Europe	37 58 N.	24 05 E.
Atlantic Ocean,	separates	Europe, Asia, and Africa from America.			
AVA,	Ava,	East India,	Asia	20 20 N.	95 30 E.

B

B AY of Biscay,	Coast of	France,	Europe,	Atlantic Ocean.	
—of Beng.	Coast of	India,	Asia	Indian Ocean.	
Baltic Sea,	between	Germany and Swed.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Baldivia,	Chili,	South	America	39 35 S.	81 10 W.
Balbec,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia,	33 40 N.	37 00 E.
Barcelona,	Catalonia,	Spain,	Europe	42 26 N.	2 18 E.
Bastia,	Corfica Isle,	Italy,	Europe	42 20 N.	9 40 E.
Bath,	Somersetshire,	England,	Europe	51 27 N.	2 32 W.
Bagdat,	Eyraca Arabia,	Turkey,	Asia	33 40 N.	45 00 E.
Baffora,	Eyraca Arabia,	Turkey,	Asia	30 45 N.	48 00 E.
BATAVIA,	Java Isle,	East India,	Asia	6 00 S.	107 00 E.
BAZIL,	Bazil,	Switzerland,	Europe	47 40 N.	7 40 E.
Belfast,	Ulster,	Ireland,	Europe	54 39 N.	6 30 W.
Bender,	Bessarabia,	Turkey,	Europe	46 40 N.	29 00 E.
BERGEN,	Bergen,	Norway,	Europe	60 10 N.	5 40 E.
BERLIN,	Brandenburg,	Germany,	Europe	52 33 N.	13 32 E.
Bern,	Bern,	Switzerland,	Europe	47 00 N.	7 20 E.
Berwick,	Berwick,	Scotland,	Europe	55 48 N.	1 45 W.
Belgrade,	Servia,	Turkey,	Europe	45 00 N.	21 20 E.
Bencoolen,	Sumatra Isle,	East India,	Asia	3 55 S.	101 00 E.
Bilboa,	Biscay,	Spain,	Europe	43 26 N.	3 18 W.
Birmingham,	Warwickshire,	England,	Europe	52 30 N.	1 50 W.
Bombay,	Bombay Isle,	East India,	Asia	19 00 N.	71 30 E.
Bokharia,	Usbec	Tartary,	Asia	39 15 N.	67 00 E.
					Bordeaux,

GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE, &c.

955

Towns.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarters.	Latitude.		Longitude.	
				D.	M.	D.	M.
Bordeaux,	Guienne,	France,	Europe	44	50 N.	00	38 W.
Boroughstouness,	Linlithgowshire,	Scotland,	Europe	59	48 N.	3	44 W.
Boston,	Lincolnshire,	England,	Europe	53	10 N.	00	25 E.
BOSTON,	Massachusetts,	New England,	America	42	20 N.	70	40 W.
Breda,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51	40 N.	4	40 E.
Brest,	Bretany,	France,	Europe	48	23 N.	4	25 W.
Bremen,	Lower Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	53	25 N.	8	20 E.
BRESLAU,	Silesia,	Bohemia,	Europe	51	15 N.	16	50 E.
Bristol,	Somersetshire,	England,	Europe	51	33 N.	2	40 W.
British Sea,	between	Brit. and Germ.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.			
Black, or Euxine Sea,	Turkey in	Europe and	Asia				
BRUSSELS,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	50	50 N.	4	06 E.
Bruges,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51	16 N.	3	05 E.
Brunswick,	Lower Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	52	30 N.	10	30 E.
Buda,	Lower,	Hungary,	Europe	47	40 N.	19	20 E.
BURLINGTON,	Jersey,	North	America	40	08 N.	75	00 E.
BUENOS AYRES,	La Plata,	South	America	34	35 S.	57	54 W.

C

CAIRO,	Lower	Egypt,	Africa	30	00 N.	32	00 E.
Cagliari,	Sardinia,	Italy,	Europe	39	25 N.	9	38 E.
CACHAO,	Tonquin,	East India,	Asia	21	30 N.	105	00 E.
Calais,	Picardy,	France,	Europe	50	58 N.	1	54 E.
Cambletown,	Argyleshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55	30 N.	5	40 E.
Cambridge,	Cambridgeshire,	England,	Europe	52	15 N.	00	05 E.
Cadiz,	Andalusia,	Spain,	Europe	36	33 N.	6	01 W.
Calcutta,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	22	00 N.	87	00 E.
Canterbury,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51	16 N.	1	15 E.
Candia,	Candy Island,	Turkey,	Asia	35	19 N.	25	23 E.
CANTON,	Canton,	China,	Asia	23	14 N.	113	06 E.
CAMBODIA,	Siam,	East India,	Asia	13	30 N.	105	00 E.
Carlisle,	Cumberland,	England,	Europe	54	47 N.	2	35 W.
Cathageruins,	Tunis,	Barbary,	Africa	36	30 N.	9	00 E.
CARTHAGENA,	Terra Firma,	South	America	10	28 N.	77	00 W.
Cardigan,	Cardiganshire,	Wales,	Europe	52	10 N.	4	38 W.
Candy,	Ceylone Isle,	East India,	Asia	7	54 N.	79	00 E.
Caspian Sea,	Russian	Tartary,	Asia				
Cassel,	Hesse Cassel,	Germany,	Europe	51	20 N.	9	20 E.
Cape Clear.	Cork,	Ireland,	Europe	51	10 N.	9	40 W.
— Finisterre,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	43	12 N.	10	05 W.
— Vincent,	Algarve,	Portugal,	Europe	36	53 N.	9	06 W.
— Verd,		Negroland,	Africa	14	43 N.	17	20 W.
— of Good Hope,	Hottentots,	Cassraria,	Africa	34	07 S.	19	35 E.
— Comorin,	Hither India,	Mogul Empire,	Asia	7	50 N.	77	30 E.
— Florida,	East Florida,	North	America	24	57 N.	80	30 W.
— Horn,	Del-Fuego Isle,	South	America	56	35 S.	79	55 W.
Cattegat Sea,	between	Swed. and Denm.	Europe,	Atlantic Ocean.			
Ceuta,	Fez,	Morocco,	Africa	35	4 N.	6	30 W.
Chester,	Cheshire,	England,	Europe	53	15 N.	3	00 W.
CHARLES TOWN,	South Carolina,	North	America	32	45 N.	79	12 W.
Civita Vecchia,	Pope's Territories,	Italy,	Europe	42	05 N.	12	30 E.
COPENHAGEN,	Zealand Isle,	Denmark,	Europe	55	41 N.	12	50 E.
Cork,	Munster,	Ireland,	Europe	51	49 N.	8	40 W.
Coventry,	Warwickshire,	England,	Europe	52	25 N.	1	25 W.
CONSTANTINOPLE,	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe	41	00 N.	28	56 E.
Constance,	Swabia,	Germany,	Europe	47	37 N.	9	12 E.
Corinth,	Morea,	Turkey,	Europe	37	30 N.	23	00 E.
Cracow,	Little Poland,	Poland,	Europe	50	00 N.	19	30 E.
Curassou,	Curassou Isle,	West India,	America	11	56 N.	68	20 W.
Cusco,	Peru,	South	America	12	25 S.	70	00 W.

D

DAMASCUS,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	33	15 N.	37	20 E.
Dantzic,	Polish Prussia,	Poland,	Europe	54	22 N.	18	36 E.
Dacca,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	23	30 N.	89	20 E.
DELLY,	Delly,	East India,	Asia	29	00 N.	76	30 E.
Delft,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52	06 N.	4	05 E.
Derbent,	Dagistan,	Persia,	Asia	41	40 N.	50	30 E.
Derby,	Derbyshire,	England,	Europe	52	58 N.	1	30 W.
Derry,	Ulster,	Ireland,	Europe	54	52 N.	7	40 W.
Dieu,	Malabar,	East India,	Asia	21	37 N.	69	30 E.
Dover,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51	08 N.	1	25 E.

DRESDEN,

Towns.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarters.	Latitude.		Longitude.	
				D.	M.	D.	M.
DRESDEN,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51	00 N.	13	36 E.
Dunder,	Forfar,	Scotland,	Europe	56	26 N.	2	48 W.
DUBLIN,	Leinster,	Ireland,	Europe	53	20 N.	6	28 W.
Durham,	Durham,	England,	Europe	54	48 N.	1	25 W.
Dumbarton,	Dumbartonshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55	54 N.	4	20 W.
Dunkirk,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51	00 N.	2	20 E.
Dunbar,	Haddington,	Scotland,	Europe	55	58 N.	2	25 W.
Dumfries,	Dumfrieshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55	08 N.	3	25 W.
E							
English Chan.	between	Engl. and France,	Europe,	Atlantic Ocean.			
Ephefus	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	38	01 N.	27	53 E.
EDINBURGH,	Edinburghshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55	58 N.	3	00 W.
Elbing,	Prussia,	Poland,	Europe	54	15 N.	20	00 W.
Embsen,	Lower	Germany,	Europe	53	25 N.	7	10 E.
Ethiopian Sea,	Coast of	Guinea,	Africa	Atlantic Ocean.			
Exeter,	Devonshire,	England,	Europe	50	44 N.	3	30 W.
F							
Falkirk,	Stirling,	Scotland,	Europe	55	58 N.	3	48 W.
Falmouth,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50	10 N.	5	20 W.
Fez,	Fez,	Morocco,	Africa,	33	30 N.	6	00 W.
Ferrol,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe,	43	30 N.	8	40 W.
FLORENCE,	Tuscany,	Italy,	Europe,	43	30 N.	12	15 E.
Fort St. David,	Coromandel,	East India,	Asia	12	05 N.	80	55 E.
G							
Geneva,	Geneva,	Switzerland,	Europe	46	20 N.	6	00 E.
GENOA,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe	44	25 N.	9	00 E.
Ghent,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51	00 N.	3	36 E.
Gibraltar,	Andalusia,	Spain,	Europe	36	00 N.	6	00 W.
Glasgow,	Lanerkshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55	50 N.	4	05 W.
Gloucester,	Gloucestershire,	England,	Europe	51	05 N.	2	16 W.
Goa,	Malabar,	East India,	Asia	15	31 N.	74	20 E.
Gombroon,	Farisslan,	Persia,	Asia	27	30 N.	57	25 E.
Gottenburg,	Gothland,	Sweden,	Europe	58	00 N.	11	30 E.
Greenock,	Renfrewshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55	52 N.	4	22 W.
Guam,	Ladrone Isles,	East India,	Asia	14	00 N.	140	30 E.
Gulph of Bothnia,	Coast of	Sweden,	Europe,	Baltic Sea.			
— Finland,	between	Sweden and Ruf.	Europe,	Baltic Sea.			
— Venice,	between	Italy and Turkey,	Europe,	Mediterranean Sea.			
— Ormus,	between	Persia and Arabia,	Asia,	Indian Ocean.			
— Persia,	between	Persia and Arabia,	Asia,	Indian Ocean.			
— St. Lawr.	Coast of	New Scotland,	North America,	Atlantic Ocean.			
— California,	between	Calif. and Mexico,	North America,	Pacific Ocean.			
— Mexico,	Coast of	Mexico,	North America,	Atlantic Ocean.			
H							
HAGUE,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52	10 N.	4	00 E.
Hamburg,	Holstein,	Germany,	Europe	53	41 N.	9	40 E.
Hellespont,	Med. and Bl. Sea.	Europe and	Asia				
Halifax,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	53	45 N.	1	52 W.
HALIFAX,	Nova Scotia,	North	America	44	40 N.	63	15 W.
Hanover,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	52	32 N.	9	35 E.
Havannah,	Cuba,	Island,	America	23	00 N.	84	00 W.
Haerlem,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52	20 N.	4	10 E.
Hughly,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	21	45 N.	87	55 E.
Hereford,	Herefordshire,	England,	Europe	52	06 N.	2	38 W.
Hull,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	53	45 N.	0	12 W.
Hudson's Bay,	Coast of	Labrador,	North America,	Northern Ocean.			
I							
Isthmus	joins	Africa to	Asia				
of Suez,							
— Corinth,	joins the Morea to	Greece,	Europe				
— Panama,	joins	North and South	America.				
— Malacca,	joins Malacca to	Further India,	Asia				
JEDDO,	Japan Isle,	East India,	Asia	36	20 N.	139	00 E.
JERUSALEM,	Palestine,	Turkey,	Asia	32	00 N.	36	00 E.
Indian Ocean,	Coast of	India,	Asia	Southern Ocean.			
Inverness,	Invernesshire,	Scotland,	Europe	57	33 N.	4	02 W.
Irish Sea,	between	G. Brit. and Irel.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.			
ISPAHAN,	Irac Agem,	Persia,	Asia	32	50 N.	51	30 E.
Ivica,	Ivica Isle,	Italy,	Europe	38	50 N.	1	40 E.

Towns.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarters.	Latitude.		Longitude.	
				D.	M.	D.	M.
K							
KELSO,	Roxboroughshire,	Scotland,	Europe	65	38 N.	2	12 W.
Kilmarnoc,	Airshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55	38 N.	4	30 W.
Kinfale,	Munster,	Ireland,	Europe	51	32 N.	8	20 W.
KINGSTON,	Jamaica,	West India,	America	17	40 N.	77	00 W.
KONINGSBERG,	Prussia,	Poland,	Europe	54	43 N.	21	35 E.
L							
Lancaster,	Lancashire	England,	Europe	54	05 N.	2	55 W.
Levant Sea,	Coast of	Syria,	Asia	Mediterranean Sea.			
Lahor,	Lahor,	East India,	Asia	32	40 N.	75	30 E.
Leith,	Edinburghshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55	58 N.	3	00 W.
Leeds,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	53	48 N.	1	24 W.
Leyden,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52	12 N.	4	05 E.
Leipfic,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51	20 N.	12	40 E.
Leicester,	Leicestershire,	England,	Europe	52	40 N.	1	05 W.
Linlithgow,	Linlithgowshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55	56 N.	3	30 W.
Lincoln,	Lincolnshire,	England,	Europe	53	15 N.	00	27 W.
Lisle,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	50	42 N.	3	00 E.
Limerick,	Munster,	Ireland,	Europe	52	35 N.	8	48 W.
LISBON,	Estremadura,	Portugal,	Europe	38	42 N.	8	53 W.
LIMA,	Peru,	South	America	12	15 S.	77	30 W.
Litchfield,	Staffordshire,	England,	Europe	52	43 N.	1	40 W.
LOUISBOURG,	Cape Breton Isle,	North	America	45	54 N.	59	30 W.
Loretto,	Pope's Territ.	Italy,	Europe	43	15 N.	14	15 E.
LONDON,	Middlesex,	England,	Europe	51	30 N.	First Mer.	
Londonderry,	Ulster,	Ireland,	Europe	55	00 N.	7	40 W.
Lubec,	Holstein,	Germany,	Europe	54	00 N.	11	40 E.
Lyons,	Lyons,	France,	Europe	45	46 N.	4	55 E.
Luxemburg,	Luxemburg,	Netherlands,	Europe	49	40 N.	5	40 E.
M							
Macao,	Canton,	China,	Asia	22	13 N.	113	51 E.
Majorca,	Majorca Isle,	Spain,	Europe	39	30 N.	3	03 E.
MADRID,	New Castile,	Spain,	Europe	40	30 N.	4	15 W.
Manchester,	Lancashire,	England,	Europe	53	30 N.	2	22 W.
Malta,	Malta Isle,	Mediterranean,	Europe	35	53 N.	14	32 E.
MANTUA	Mantua,	Italy,	Europe	45	20 N.	10	47 E.
Malacca,	Malacca,	East India,	Asia	2	12 N.	101	00 E.
Madras,	Coromandel,	East India,	Asia	13	11 N.	80	32 E.
Manilla,	Philippine Isles,	East India,	Asia	20	14 N.	118	00 E.
Marseilles,	Provence,	France,	Europe	43	15 N.	5	20 E.
Medina,	Arab. Deserta,	Arabia,	Asia	25	00 N.	39	53 E.
MECCA,	Arab. Deserta,	Arabia,	Asia	21	45 N.	41	00 E.
Medit. Sea,	between	Europe and	Africa,	Atlantic Ocean.			
Mequinez,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	34	3 N.	6	00 E.
MESSINA,	Sicily Island,	Medit. Sea,	Europe	38	30 N.	15	40 E.
MEXICO,	Mexico,	North	America	20	00 N.	103	00 W.
Milford Haven,	Pembrokeshire	Wales,	Europe	51	45 N.	5	15 W.
MILAN,	Milanese,	Italy,	Europe	45	25 N.	9	30 E.
MOCHO,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Asia	13	40 N.	43	50 E.
MODENA,	Modena,	Italy,	Europe	44	45 N.	11	20 W.
Montreal,	Canada,	North	America	45	35 N.	73	11 W.
Montpelier,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe	43	30 N.	3	50 E.
Montrose,	Forfar,	Scotland,	Europe	56	34 N.	2	20 W.
MOROCCO,	Morocco,	Barbary,	Africa	30	32 N.	6	10 W.
Moscow,	Moscow,	Russia,	Europe	55	45 N.	37	51 E.
Munster,	Westphalia,	Germany,	Europe	52	00 N.	7	10 E.
N							
NANCY,	Lorraine,	Germany,	Europe	48	44 N.	6	00 E.
Nanking,	Nanking,	China,	Asia	32	00 N.	118	30 E.
NAPLES,	Naples,	Italy,	Europe	41	00 N.	14	19 E.
NARVA,	Livonia,	Russia,	Europe	59	00 N.	27	35 E.
Newcastle,	Northumberland,	England,	Europe	55	03 N.	1	24 W.
Nice,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe	43	42 N.	7	05 E.
Newport,	Rhode Island,	North	America	41	35 N.	71	06 W.
NEW YORK,	New York,	North	America	40	40 N.	74	00 W.
NINEVEH,	Assyria,	Turkey,	Asia	36	00 N.	45	00 E.
Nottingham,	Nottinghamshire,	England,	Europe	53	00 N.	1	06 W.
Northampton,	Northamptonshire,	England,	Europe	52	15 N.	00	55 W.
Norwich,	Norfolk,	England,	Europe	52	40 N.	1	25 E.

11 K

No. 87.

Olympia

<i>Towns.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries.</i>	<i>Quarters.</i>	<i>Latitude.</i>		<i>Longitude.</i>	
				D.	M.	D.	M.
O							
Olympia,	Greece,	Turkey,	Europe	37	30 N.	22	00 E.
OLMUTZ,	Moravia,	Bohemia,	Europe	49	30 N.	16	45 E.
Oporto,	Duoro,	Portugal,	Europe	41	10 N.	9	00 W.
Ormus,	Ormus Isle,	Persia,	Asia	26	50 N.	57	00 E.
Oran,	Algiers,	Barbary,	Africa	36	30 N.	0	05 E.
Ostend,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51	15 N.	2	45 E.
Oxford,	Oxfordshire,	England,	Europe	51	45 N.	1	15 W.
P							
Pacific, or Ori- ental Ocean,		Asia and America					
Padua,	Venice,	Italy,	Europe	45	30 N.	12	15 E.
Paisley,	Renfrewshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55	48 N.	4	08 W.
PALERMO,	Sicily Isle,	Mediterranean,	Europe	38	30 N.	13	43 E.
Palmyra,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	33	00 N.	39	00 E.
PANAMA,	Darien,	Terra Firma,	America	8	50 N.	81	52 W.
PARIS,	Isle of France,	France,	Europe	48	50 N.	2	25 E.
PARMA,	Parmesan,	Italy,	Europe	44	45 N.	10	51 E.
Patna,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	25	45 N.	83	00 E.
PEGU,	Pegu,	East India,	Asia	17	00 N.	97	00 E.
Pekin,	Pekin,	China,	Asia	40	00 N.	116	28 E.
Pembroke,	Pembrokeshire,	Wales,	Europe	51	45 N.	4	50 W.
Penzance,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50	08 N.	6	00 W.
PENSACOLA,	West Florida,	North	America	30	22 N.	87	20 W.
Perth,	Perthshire,	Scotland,	Europe	56	22 N.	3	12 W.
Perthamboy,	New York,	North	America	40	30 N.	74	20 W.
Persepolis,	Irac Agem,	Persia,	Asia	30	30 N.	54	00 E.
PETERSBURG,	Ingria,	Russia,	Europe	60	00 N.	30	25 E.
PHILADELPHIA,	Pennsylvania,	North	America	40	00 N.	75	20 W.
Pisa,	Tuscany,	Italy,	Europe	43	36 N.	11	15 E.
PLACENTIA,	Newfound. Isle,	North	America	47	26 N.	55	00 W.
Plymouth,	Devonshire,	England,	Europe	50	26 N.	4	15 W.
Plymouth,	New England,	North	America	41	48 N.	70	25 W.
Pondicherry,	Coromandel,	East India,	Asia	12	27 N.	80	00 E.
Portsmouth,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	50	48 N.	1	06 W.
Portsmouth,	New England,	North	America	43	10 N.	70	20 W.
Porto Bello,	Darien,	Terra Firma,	America	10	00 N.	82	00 W.
Port l'Orient,	Bretany,	France,	Europe	47	42 N.	3	15 W.
Port Royal,	Jamaica Isle,	West India,	America	18	00 N.	77	00 W.
Potosi,	Peru,	South	America	21	00 S.	67	00 W.
PRAGUE,	—	Bohemia,	Europe	50	00 N.	14	20 E.
Preston,	Lancashire,	England,	Europe	53	45 N.	2	50 W.
PRESBURG,	Upper	Hungary,	Europe	48	20 N.	17	30 E.
Q							
QUEBEC,	Canada,	North	America	46	55 N.	69	48 W.
QUITO,	Peru,	South	America	0	30 N.	78	00 W.
R							
Rio Janeiro,	Brazil,	South	America	22	40 S.	43	10 W.
Ragusa,	Dalmatia,	Venice,	Europe	42	45 N.	18	25 E.
Ratisbon,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe	48	56 N.	12	05 E.
Revel,	Livonia,	Russia,	Europe	59	00 N.	25	07 E.
Rheims,	Champagne,	France,	Europe	49	14 N.	4	00 E.
RHODES,	Rhodes Island,	Levant Sea,	Asia	36	20 N.	28	00 E.
Riga,	Livonia,	Russia,	Europe	56	55 N.	24	00 E.
ROME,	Pope's Territ.	Italy,	Europe	41	54 N.	12	45 E.
Rosetto,	Egypt,	Turkey,	Africa	31	10 N.	41	35 E.
Rotterdam,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	51	55 N.	4	30 E.
Rouen,	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49	26 N.	1	10 E.
S							
ST. AUGUSTIN,	East Florida,	North	America	29	45 N.	81	12 W.
—DOMINGO,	Hispaniola Isle,	West India,	America	18	20 N.	70	00 W.
—Helena	St. Helena,	Island,	Africa	16	00 S.	6	20 W.
—JAGO,	Chili,	South	America	34	00 S.	77	00 W.
—Salvador,	Brazil,	South	America	13	00 S.	38	00 W.
Sallee,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	34	00 N.	6	20 W.
SAMARCHAND,	Usbec	Tartary,	Asia	40	40 N.	69	00 E.
Salisbury,	Wiltshire,	England,	Europe,	51	00 N.	1	45 W.
SANTA FE,	New Mexico,	North	America	36	00 N.	101	00 W.
SAVANNAH,	Georgia,	North	America	31	55 N.	80	20 W.
Sayd, or Thebes,	Upper	Egypt,	Africa	27	00 N.	32	20 E.

<i>Towns.</i>	<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Countries.</i>	<i>Quarters.</i>	<i>Latitude.</i>		<i>Longitude.</i>	
				D.	M.	D.	M.
Samaria Ruins,	Holy Land,	Turkey,	Asia	32	40 N.	38	00 E.
St. George's Chan.	between	Eng. and Irel.	Europe				
Scarborough,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	54	18 N.	0	10 W.
Scone,	Perthshire,	Scotland,	Europe	56	24 N.	3	10 W.
Sea of Asoph,	Little Tartary,	Europe and	Asia,				
—Marmora,	Turkey in	Europe and	Asia,				
—Kamschatka,	Coast of	Kamschatka,	Asia,				
—Korea,	Coast of	Korea,	Asia,				
Shrewsbury,	Shropshire,	England,	Europe	52	43 N.	2	46 W.
Sheilds,	Durham,	England,	Europe	55	02 N.	1	15 W.
Sheerness,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51	25 N.	00	50 E.
Schiras,	Farfistan,	Persia,	Asia,	29	30 N.	53	00 E.
Seville,	Andalusia,	Spain,	Europe	37	15 N.	6	05 W.
SIAM,	Siam,	East India,	Asia	14	18 N.	100	55 E.
Sidon,	Palestine,	Turkey,	Asia	33	33 N.	36	15 E.
Smyrna,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	38	28 N.	29	00 E.
Southampton,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	50	55 N.	1	25 W.
Spaw,	Liege	Germany,	Europe	50	30 N.	5	40 E.
Sound,	between	Dènm. and Swed.	Europe,				
Stafford,	Staffordshire,	England,	Europe	52	50 N.	2	00 W.
Stirling,	Sterlingshire,	Scotland,	Europe	56	10 N.	3	50 W.
Stralsund,	Pomerania,	Germany,	Europe	54	23 N.	13	22 E.
Straßburgh,	Alsace,	Germany,	Europe	48	38 N.	7	51 E.
STOCKHOLM,	Uplandia,	Sweden,	Europe	59	30 N.	18	08 E.
Streights of Dover,	between	Eng. and France,	Europe,				
—Gibraltar,	between	Europe and	Africa,				
—Babelmandel,	between	Africa and	Asia,				
—Ormus,	between	Persia and Arab.	Asia,				
—Malacca,	between	Mal. and Sumat.	Asia,				
—Magellan,	in Patagonia,	South	America,				
—La Maire,	in Patagonia,	South	America,				
Suez,	Suez,	Egypt,	Africa	29	50 N.	33	27 E.
Sunderland,	Durham,	England,	Europe	54	55 N.	1	10 W.
SURINAM,	Surinam,	South	America	6	00 N.	55	30 W.
SURAT,	Cambaya,	East India,	Asia	21	10 N.	72	25 E.
SYRACUSE,	Sicily Isle,	Mediterranean,	Europe	37	04 N.	15	05 E.
T							
TANGIER,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	35	42 N.	5	45 W.
Tanjour,	Tanjour,	East India,	Asia	11	27 N.	79	07 E.
Tauris, or	Medea,	Persia,	Asia	38	20 N.	46	30 E.
Ecbatana,							
Teflis,	Georgia,	Persia,	Asia	43	30 N.	47	00 E.
Tetuan,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	35	40 N.	5	18 W.
Thorn,	Regal Prussia,	Poland,	Europe	52	56 N.	19	00 E.
TOBOLSKI,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	58	00 N.	69	00 E.
Toledo,	New Castile,	Spain,	Europe	39	45 N.	4	12 W.
Toulon,	Provence,	France,	Europe	43	07 N.	6	00 E.
Trapefond,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	41	50 N.	40	30 E.
Trent,	Trent,	Germany,	Europe	46	05 N.	11	02 E.
Troy Ruins,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	39	30 N.	26	30 E.
TRIPOLI,	Tripoli,	Barbary,	Africa	33	30 N.	14	30 E.
Tripoli,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	34	30 N.	36	15 E.
TUNIS,	Tunis,	Barbary,	Africa	36	47 N.	10	00 E.
TURIN,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe	44	50 N.	7	30 E.
Tyre,	Judea,	Turkey,	Asia	32	32 N.	36	00 E.
U							
UTRECHT,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52	07 N.	5	00 E.
V							
VENICE,	Venice,	Italy,	Europe	45	25 N.	12	10 E.
Vera Cruz,	Old Mexico,	North	America	18	30 N.	97	48 W.
Verfaillies,	Isle of France,	France,	Europe	41	40 N.	2	15 E.
VIENNA,	Austria,	Germany,	Europe	48	20 N.	16	20 E.
W							
WARWICK,	Warwickshire,	England,	Europe	52	18 N.	1	32 W.
WARSAW,	Warsovia,	Poland,	Europe	52	15 N.	21	05 E.
Waterford,	Munster,	Ireland,	Europe	52	12 N.	7	16 W.
Whitehaven,	Cumberland,	England,	Europe	54	38 N.	3	36 W.
WILLIAMSBURGH,	Virginia,	North	America	37	12 N.	76	48 W.
Wells,	Somersetshire,	England,	Europe	51	12 N.	2	40 W.
Winchester,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	51	06 N.	1	5 W.
Worms,	Lower Rhine,	Germany,	Europe	49	38 N.	8	05 E.
Worcester,	Worcestershire,	England,	Europe	52	10 N.	2	15 W.
Y							
YARMOUTH,	Norfolk,	England,	Europe	52	45 N.	1	48 E.
York,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	54	00 N.	1	03 W.

The Superficial CONTENTS of the GLOBE of the EARTH, and its Divisions in Square Miles.

GLOBE of EARTH and SEA, 148,510,627 Square Miles.

Seas and unknown Parts 117,843,822

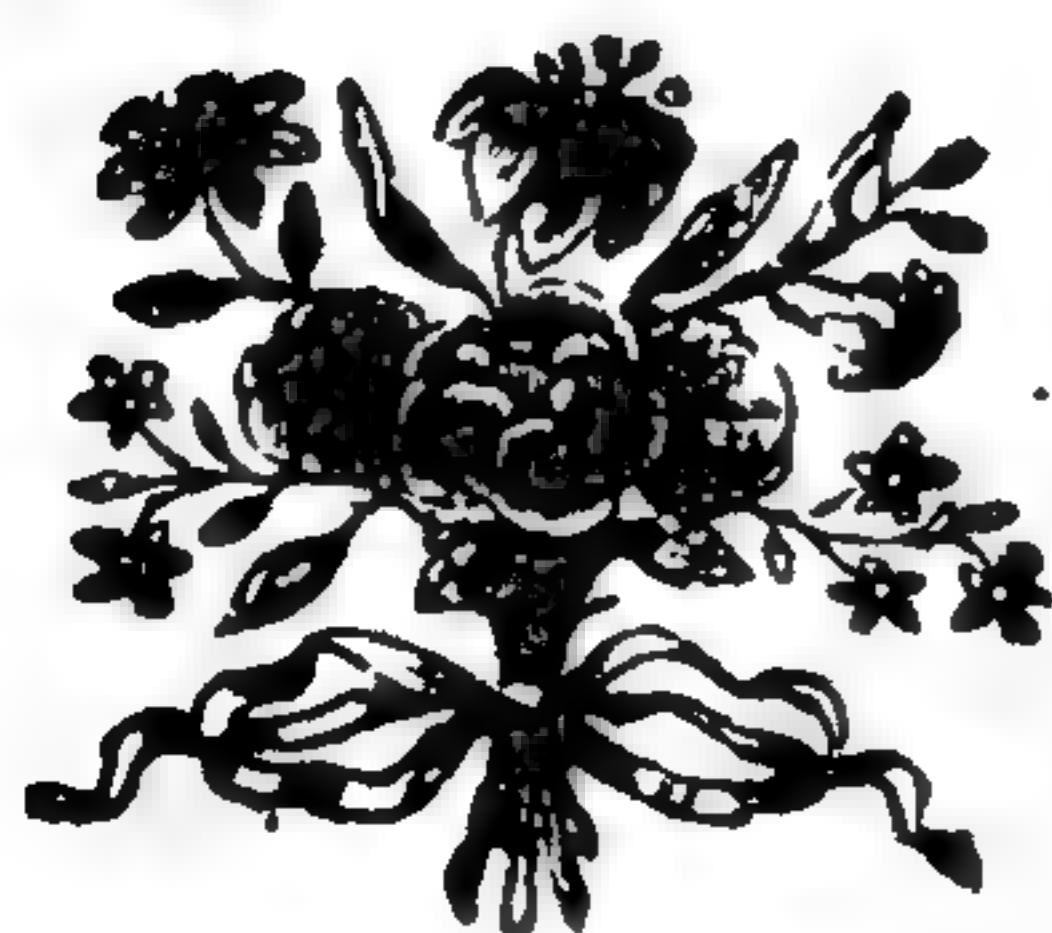
The inhabitable Parts 30,666,805

Asia	10,257,487	Persian Present	800,000	Netherlands	12,968
Africa	8,506,208	Russian Empire	3,303,485	Norway	71,400
Europe	2,749,349	Turkish Empire	960,057	Poland	226,414
North America	3,699,087	Denmark	163,000	Spain with Portugal	144,236
South America	5,454,675	France	131,095	Sweden	76,835
Chinese Empire	1,749,000	Germany	56,950	Switzerland	7,533
Mogul's Empire	1,116,000	Hungary	75,525		
Persian under Darius	1,650,000	Italy	75,525		

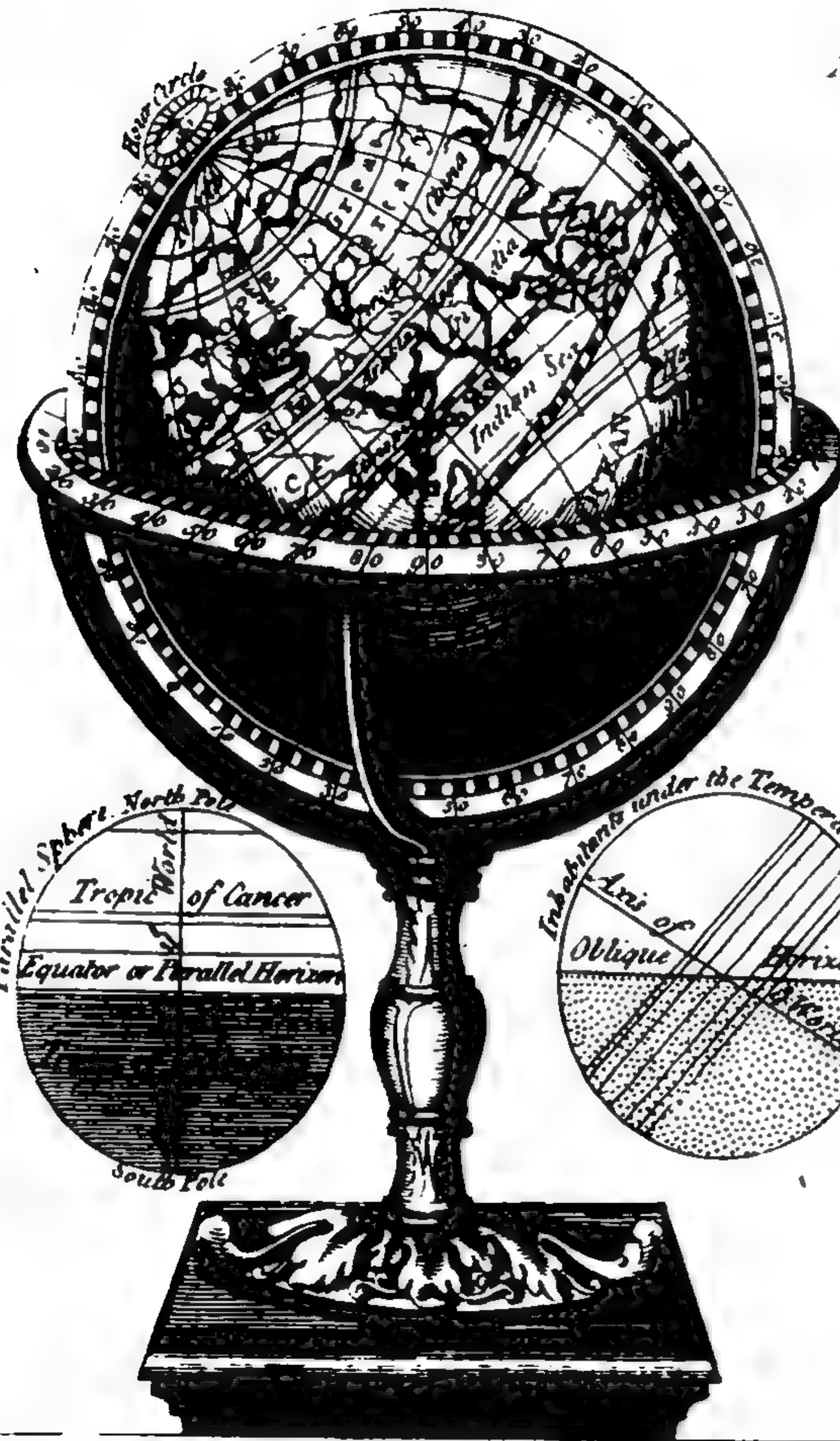
ISLANDS in Order of Magnitude.

Borneo	228,000	Formosa	17,000	Negropont	1,300	Lemnos	220
Madagascar	168,000	Aniany	11,900	Teneriff	1,272	Corfu	194
Sumatra	129,000	Sicily	9,400	Gothland	1,000	Providence	168
Japan	118,000	Timor	7,800	Madeira	950	Man	160
Great Britain	72,926	Sardinia	6,600	St. Michael	920	Bornholm	160
Celebes	68,000	Cyprus	6,300	Skye	900	Wight	150
Manilla	58,000	Jamaica	6,000	Lewis	880	Malta	150
Iceland	46,000	Ceram	5,400	Funen	768	Barbadoes	140
Terra del Fuego	42,075	Cape Breton	4,000	Yvica	625	Zant	120
Mindanao	39,000	Socotora	3,600	Minorca	520	Antigua	100
Cuba	38,400	Candia	3,220	Rhodes	480	St. Christopher's	80
Java	38,250	Porto Rico	3,200	Cephalonia	420	St. Helena	80
Hispaniola	36,000	Corfica	2,520	Amboyna	400	Guernsey	50
Newfoundland	35,500	Zealand	1,935	Orkney Pomona	324	Jersey	43
Ceylon	27,730	Majorca	1,400	Scio	300	Bermudas	40
Ireland	27,457	St. Jago	1,400	Martinico	260	Rhodes	36

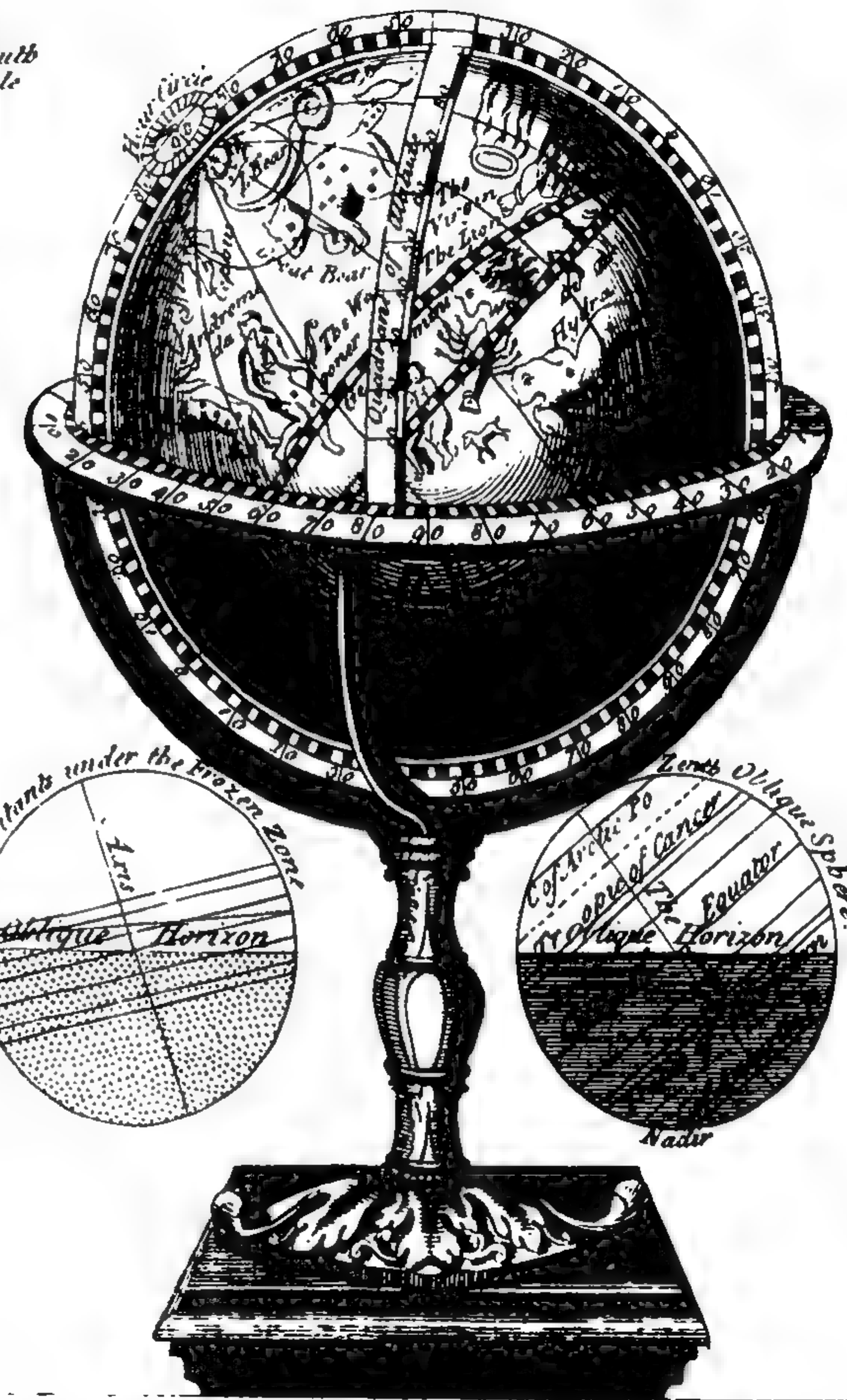
31 MR 64



TERRESTRIAL GLOBE.



CELESTIAL GLOBE.





GEOGRAPHY, ASTRONOMY, the USE of the GLOBES, MAPS, &c.

GEOGRAPHY is a term derived from two Greek words, (*γη*, signifying *the earth*, and *γραφω*, *to describe*,) implying a general Description of what is called the Terraqueous or Terrestrial Globe.

There are other terms, which, though comprised in the general one of Geography, may be defined abstractedly: thus, *Hydrography* implies a description of water; *Chorography* signifies the description of a country, or province; and *Topography* means the description of a particular district; city, town, village, &c.

TERMS used in GEOGRAPHY.

THE principal terms used in Geography, respecting the description of land and water, are as follow:

A Continent implies a large portion of earth, comprising several countries, which are not separated by the sea.

An Island is a portion of earth entirely surrounded by water.

A Peninsula is a quantity of land, joined to the continent by a small neck, and every where else surrounded by water.

An Isthmus is that neck which connects the peninsula to the main land.

A Promontory, or Cape, is a high point of land, which stretches into the sea.

An Ocean is an immense collection of water, surrounding a great part of the continent.

A Sea is a smaller collection of water, or an inferior ocean.

A Gulph is a part of the sea almost surrounded by land, except at one small part, where it joins the main sea.

A Bay is, in general, less than a gulph, and has a wider entrance.

A Creek is less than a bay, and may be deemed a small inlet of water, running a little way into the land.

A Road is a place on the coast, where there is a good anchorage.

A Streight, or Strait, is a narrow passage of water, which joins two seas, two gulphs, a sea and a gulph, &c.

A Lake is a collection of waters, surrounded by land.

A River is a stream of water, which derives its source from some inland spring, meanders through the country, and empties itself either into the ocean, the sea, or some other river.

For the help of memory, we shall recapitulate the foregoing geographical terms in verse.

A Continent's a Track of land defin'd,
Comprising countries not by seas disjoin'd.
The wat'ry element an *Island* bounds,
And ev'ry where with circling waves surrounds;
And a *Peninsula*'s an earthly space,
Which (one part only) flowing waves embrace.
That part, or neck, which joins it to the main,
By the word *Isthmus* fully we explain.
A *Promontory* is, as all agree,
A point of land projecting in the sea.
The earthly globe the surging *Oceans* bound,
And lesser *Seas* more narrow shores surround.
For an inferior sea a *Gulph* may stand,
Almost enclos'd and circumscrib'd by land.
A *Bay* is as a smaller *Gulph* defin'd:
A *Creek*'s a smaller bay, less mov'd by wind.
A *Road* is where a ship may ride with ease:
A *Streight*'s a narrow pass that joins two seas.
A *Lake*'s an inland sea with certain bounds,
Which banking earth on ev'ry side surrounds.
A *River* through the land meand'ring goes,
Streams from its source, and to the ocean flows.

Of the ARTIFICIAL SPHERE, or GLOBE.

THE Sphere is an artificial machine, consisting of many circles, invented by the sagacity of mathematicians, to explain the doctrine of the Globe, or Orrery; and to illustrate the motions of the earth, planets, &c.

Every circle is divided into 360 equal parts, which we call degrees; each degree into 60 more equal parts, called minutes.

The *Plane* of a circle means that surface on which it is drawn; and if the surface be supposed of an infinite extent from the center, it is still called the Plane of that circle. But circles are said to be in different Planes, when the surfaces on which they are made incline to or intersect each other.

The *Axis* is that line which we conceive to pass through the middle of the earth, and on which the whole mass turns round, represented in the artificial Globe by a wire. The two extremities of the Axis are called the Poles of the Equator; and if the Axis be imagined to reach the stars, one point is called the Arctic, and the other the Antarctic, or the North and South Poles of the World.

The principal Great Circles are these:

The *Equator* is a great circle, going from east to west, which parts the globe into the north and south hemispheres. It is named the Equator, or Equinoctial Line, because when the sun arrives there the nights and days are equal. It is also divided into 360 degrees, reckoned eastward from the first Meridian.

The *Horizon* is that great circle which parts the upper hemisphere from the lower, or the visible from the invisible hemisphere. So much of the earth as we comprehend in our view, in a circular manner when we stand on a plain, is called the Sensible Horizon. It is a moveable circle, having the zenith point over the spectator's head, and the nadir point under his feet, for its two poles. But the Rational Horizon is to suppose the eye at the center of the earth, viewing the whole celestial hemisphere upwards; which is represented by a broad wooden circle encompassing the globe, on which are described several other circles. The inner one is divided into twelve equal parts, shewing the twelve signs of the zodiac; each of which is subdivided into thirty degrees, marked 10, 20, 30. The next contains a calendar, according to the Old Style, divided into months and days; and the other is a calendar according to the New Style.

The *Meridian* is a great circle, dividing the globe into the east and west hemispheres: it lies directly north and south, passing through the poles of the equator. The Meridian is changeable, being properly that part of the heavens where the sun is at noon; so that every place on the earth has a different Meridian, if we move east or west; but passing north or south, it remains the same. The Meridians marked on the Globe are 24 semi-circles, ending in the poles, which we may multiply at pleasure; for Geographers usually settle one Meridian, from whence they reckon the longitude of any place, east or west; as in the new set of Maps for this Geography, London is made the first Meridian. The globe hangs in a brass circle, on which is placed another small brass one, called the horary circle; this is divided into 24 equal parts, and describes the hours of day and night, which, in turning of the Globe, are pointed out by an index fitted to the pole. This is to shew the rising and setting of the sun, moon, and stars; or the time of day in all parts of the earth. The degrees of latitude are marked on any Meridian line; but in maps always on the two outermost.

There are two other meridians, called *Colures*, which being also great circles, cut the sphere into four equal parts. The Solstice Colure goes through the poles, and cuts the ecliptic at the first degree of Cancer and Capricorn: the Equinox Colure goes likewise through the poles, but cuts the ecliptic at the beginning of Aries and Libra. By these the seasons are distinguished; for when the earth, in its annual course, passes under the Equinox Colure, then commence the spring and autumn; but when it passes under the Solstice Colure, the winter and summer begin.

The *Ecliptic* is a great oblique circle, cutting the equator at angles of 23 degrees, 29 minutes. It describes the annual course of the earth, north and south: but the course of the planets and moon lies eight degrees farther on each side; which broad part of the sphere is commonly called the Zodiac, containing 16 degrees; the Ecliptic being that circle in the middle, which is divided into 12 signs, each containing 30 degrees. The characters and names of the signs are thus:

<i>Aries</i>	♈	<i>Cancer</i>	♋	<i>Libra</i>	♎	<i>Capricorn</i>	♏
<i>Taurus</i>	♉	<i>Leo</i>	♌	<i>Scorpio</i>	♏	<i>Aquarius</i>	♒
<i>Gemini</i>	♊	<i>Virgo</i>	♍	<i>Sagittarius</i>	♐	<i>Pisces</i>	♓

There are two more Great Circles, called *Vertical*, or *Azimuth Circles*. These are perpendicular to the horizon, and pass through the zenith and nadir. They are not drawn on the Globe, but represented by the quadrant of altitude, which is a very thin plate of brass, made to screw on the zenith of any place, and to reach the horizon; being also divided into 90 degrees, for taking the altitude of the sun or stars, when they are not on the meridian.

The Lesser Circles are four.

The two *Tropics* are those of Cancer and Capricorn: the first is 23 degrees, 29 minutes, north from the equator; and the other is the same distance to the south. On all globes and maps they are known by a double line.

The two remaining Circles are still smaller, called the *Arctic* or *Polar Circles*. The North Pole Circle is distant 23 degrees, 29 minutes, from the North Pole; and the South Pole Circle is equidistant from the South Pole. These Circles have also double lines.

The Cardinal Points are the four quarters of the world, east, west, north, and south.

The Collateral Points are the principal divisions and subdivisions of the four chief; in all 32.

The earth being divided into five parts, by the two Tropics and the two Polar Circles, those five parts are named Zones. Two Temperate, two Frigid, and the Torrid Zone.

The North Temperate Zone includes all the land between the Tropic of Cancer and the North Pole Circle; and the South Temperate Zone includes all between the Tropic of Capricorn and the South Pole Circle.

The two Frigid Zones contain all the land from the two Polar Circles to the very Poles. These, by the ancients, were thought uninhabitable; but navigators have discovered many well-peopled countries within the Arctic Circle, almost round the North Pole; though none as yet has been discovered within the Antarctic, or South Frigid Zone.

The Torrid Zone includes all the space between the two Tropics, the Equator being in the middle. The whole is thoroughly inhabited, though it lies under the full annual course of the sun; for which reason the ancients thought it could not be peopled for extreme heat, any more than the Frigid Zones for extreme cold.

The Temperate Zones contain, in latitude, each 43 degrees, 2 minutes, being the space between each Tropic and the Pole Circle. The Frigid Zones contain each 46 degrees, 58 minutes; that is to say, 23 degrees, 29 minutes, on either side the Pole: and the Torrid Zone, in like manner, contains 46 degrees, 58 minutes, latitude; that is, 23 degrees, 29 minutes, on each side the Equator.

Of SHADOWS.

THE ancients also named the inhabitants of the earth according to which way the Shadows of their bodies were cast by the noontide sun.

Periscii are those beyond the Polar Circles, whose bodily Shadows turn round every 24 hours.

Heteroscii are those people in the Temperate Zones, whose noon Shadows ever fall one way; the North Temperate Zone throwing it north, and the South Temperate Zone throwing it south.

Amphiscii are those who live in the Torrid, or Middle Zone. Their noon Shadows fall different ways at different seasons: for when the sun gets to the sign Cancer, being the North Tropic, their Shadows fall south; and when the sun reaches Capricorn, or the South Tropic, the Shadows go north. And because, twice a year, their bodies make no shade at all, the sun passing just over their heads, they are therefore called *Ascii*.

Periscii is from $\pi\epsilon\rho\iota$, which means *round about*; and $\sigma\upsilon\alpha$, a *Shadow*. *Heteroscii* is from $\eta\tau\epsilon\rho\omicron\varsigma$, meaning *one only*, and $\sigma\upsilon\alpha$. *Amphiscii* is from $\alpha\mu\phi\iota$, *both ways*. And *Ascii* is from α , and $\sigma\upsilon\alpha$; that is, *without a Shadow*.

Of SITUATIONS.

THE *Perieci* are those people who live in the same parallel, have the same latitude and seasons, and the same pole elevated; but have opposite meridians, and consequently opposite days and nights.

The *Antieci* are those who have the same meridian, but opposite parallels; equidistant from the Equator, though on contrary sides. Their longitude is the same, and consequently the same length of day and night; but they have contrary poles and seasons; and when it is noon with one, it is midnight with the other.

Antipodes are such whose parallel and meridian are both opposite. They have the whole globe of the earth between them, in diametrical opposition: they have contrary poles elevated: their feet are directly opposite, and consequently their nights and days, winter and summer.

Of LATITUDE and LONGITUDE.

THE exact situation of cities and places, where the inhabitants of the earth reside, is more particularly called their Latitude and Longitude. Latitude is the distance of any place from each side the Equator to either of the Poles; which distance being but 90 degrees each, no Latitude can exceed that number.

Longitude is the distance of a place from the first, or some other meridian. When Ptolemy invented the way of distinguishing the situation of places, he did it by parallel and meridian lines; the latter passing round the globe through the Equator and Poles, and the former lying parallel to the Equator, which parallel lines were found very convenient for marking the Latitude into degrees and minutes. Then for Longitude, he fixed upon Teneriffe, one of the Canary Islands, as the most western part of the then known world; which having a very high mountain, was a good mark for mariners, and the fittest place from whence to begin a general computation

putation. Accordingly all the old maps begin their East Longitude from Teneriffe; and, because then only one side of the globe was known, the degrees were only 180: but since the discovery of America, they are carried quite round to 360. This method was always esteemed, and Teneriffe reckoned a good standard meridian, till the French, who like nothing which they themselves do not invent, thought proper to alter it, and make the Island Faro their new meridian, which, by late observations, lies just two degrees more west. Wherefore, to prevent confusion, our modern Geographers, and delineators of maps, make the metropolis of their own nation the first real meridian; and, in this case, Longitude is two-fold, being, from London, either west or east; as at sea it is computed from some known port or head-land.

The Longitude of any place from London being known, the difference in the hour of the day is also known. For as the sun performs his diurnal circuit in 24 hours, he gains in each hour 15 degrees, being a twenty-fourth part of 360, or one degree in four minutes. So that at any place 15 degrees east of us, noon is an hour sooner with them, as it is an hour later with those who live 15 degrees west from us. The town of Pembroke, in Wales, being five degrees west of London, their noon is therefore 20 minutes later. If a clock, or any time-piece, could be so made as to go equal and true at any season, or distance, the theory of Longitude at sea would be no more a mystery; but as that is impracticable, our modern Astronomers have contented themselves with observing the Solar and Lunar Eclipses; for if their appearances and calculations are exactly known with us, and the same appearances are observed in any other part of this globe, the difference arising from those times will settle the difference in Longitude by the foregoing rule. The Eclipses also of Jupiter's Moons, and the spheroidal figure of the Earth, two important discoveries of the seventeenth century, will each, in their turn, lead us farther on to a true system of Longitude.

Lastly, Though all degrees of Latitude are equal in length, yet degrees of Longitude vary in every new parallel of Latitude: for all the meridian lines meeting and intersecting each other at the poles, the degrees of Longitude do naturally diminish as they proceed either way from the Equator. The best explanation of which is an orange with the peel stripped off; where the natural partitions not only resemble, but are truly the meridians of a Globe, crossing each other at the top and bottom: whereas, if the orange is cut in slices the contrary way, the divisions are parallel, and the degrees of Latitude all equal.

The following Table shews how the degrees of Longitude diminish throughout all the parallels of Latitude; reckoning 60 parts, or miles, for a degree at the Equator.

A TABLE, shewing the Number of Miles contained in a Degree of Longitude, in each Parallel of Latitude from the Equator.

Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.
1	59	96	31	51	43	61	29	04
2	59	94	32	50	88	62	28	17
3	59	92	33	50	32	63	27	24
4	59	86	34	49	74	64	26	30
5	59	77	35	49	15	65	25	36
6	59	67	36	48	54	66	24	41
7	59	56	37	47	92	67	23	45
8	59	40	38	47	28	68	22	48
9	59	20	39	46	62	68	21	51
10	59	08	40	46	00	70	20	52
11	58	89	41	45	28	71	19	54
12	58	68	42	44	95	72	18	55
13	58	46	43	43	88	73	17	54
14	58	22	44	43	16	74	16	53
15	58	00	45	42	43	75	15	52
16	57	60	46	41	68	76	14	51
17	57	30	47	41	00	77	13	50
18	57	04	48	40	15	78	12	48
19	56	73	49	39	36	79	11	45
20	56	38	50	38	57	80	10	42
21	56	00	51	37	73	81	09	38
22	55	63	52	37	00	82	08	35
23	55	23	53	36	18	83	07	32
24	54	81	54	35	26	84	06	28
25	54	38	55	34	41	85	05	23
26	54	00	56	33	55	86	04	18
27	53	44	57	32	67	87	03	14
28	53	00	58	31	70	88	02	09
29	52	48	59	30	90	89	01	05
30	51	96	60	30	00	90	00	00

A T A B L E, shewing in what Climate any Country lies, supposing the Length of the Day, and the Distance of Place from the Equator, to be known.

Cli.	Latitude. D. M.		Breadth. D. M.		Long. H. M.	Day. M.	Names of Countries and remarkable Places, situated in every Climate North of the Equator.	
1	8	25	8	25	12	30	I. Within the first climate lie the Gold and Silver Coasts, in Africa; Malacca, in the East-Indies; Cayenne and Surinam, in Terra Firma, South America.	
2	16	25	8		13		II. Here lie Abyssinia, in Africa; Siam, Madrafs, and Pondicherry, in the East-Indies; Straits of Darien, between North and South America; Tobago, Granades, St. Vincent, and Barbadoes, in the West-Indies.	
3	23	50	7	25	13	30	III. Contains Mecca, in Arabia; Bombay, part of Bengal, in the East-Indies; Canton, in China; Mexico, Bay of Campeachy, in North America; Jamaica, Hispaniola, St. Christopher's, Antigua, Martinico, and Guadaloupe, in the West-Indies.	
4	30	25	6	30	14		IV. Egypt, and the Canary Islands, in Africa; Delli, capital of the Mogul Empire, in Asia; Gulph of Mexico, and East-Florida, in North America; the Havannah, in the West-Indies.	
5	36	28	6	8	14	30	V. Gibraltar, in Spain; part of the Mediterranean Sea; the Barbary Coast, in Africa; Jerusalem; Ispahan, capital of Persia; Nanking, in China; California, New-Mexico, West-Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas, in North America.	
6	41	22	4	54	15		VI. Lisbon, in Portugal; Madrid, in Spain; Minorca, Sardinia, and part of Greece, in the Mediterranean; Asia Minor, part of the Caspian Sea; Samarcand, in Great Tartary; Peking, in China; Corea and Japan; Williamsburgh, in Virginia; Maryland and Philadelphia, in North America.	
7	45	29	4	7	15	30	VII. Northern Provinces of Spain; southern ditto of France; Turin, Genoa, and Rome, in Italy; Constantinople, and the Black Sea, in Turkey; the Caspian Sea, and part of Tartary; New-York, Boston, in New-England, North America.	
8	49	01	3	32	16		VIII. Paris; Vienna, capital of Germany; New-Scotland, Newfoundland, and Canada, in North America.	
9	52	00	2	57	16	30	IX. London, Flanders, Prague, Dresden; Cracow, in Poland; southern Provinces of Russia; part of Tartary; north part of Newfoundland.	
10	54	27	2	29	17		X. Dublin, York, Holland; Hanover; Warsaw, in Poland; Labradore, and New South Wales, in North America.	
11	56	37	2	10	17	30	XI. Edinburgh, Copenhagen, Moscow, capital of Russia.	
12	58	29	1	52	18		XII. South part of Sweden; Tobolski, capital of Siberia.	
13	59	58	1	29	18	30	XIII. Orkney Isles; Stockholm, capital of Sweden.	
14	61	18	1	20	19		XIV. Bergen, in Norway; Petersburg, in Russia.	
15	62	25	1	7	19	30	XV. Hudson's Straits, North America.	
16	63	22		57	20		XVI. Siberia, and the south part of West Greenland.	
17	64	06		44	20	30	XVII. Drontheim, in Norway.	
18	64	49		43	21		XVIII. Part of Finland, in Russia.	
19	65	21		32	21	30	XIX. Archangel, on the White Sea, Russia.	
20	65	47		22	22		XX. Hecla, in Iceland.	
21	66	06		19	22	30	XXI. Northern parts of Russia and Siberia.	
22	66	20		14	23		XXII. New North Wales, in North America.	
23	66	28		8	23	30	XXIII. Davis's Straits, in ditto.	
24	66	31		3	24		XXIV. Samoieda.	
25	67	21	1	Month			XXV. South part of Lapland.	
26	69	48	2	Months			XXVI. West Greenland.	
27	73	37	3	Months			XXVII. Zembla Australis.	
28	78	30	4	Months			XXVIII. Zembla Borealis.	
29	84	05	5	Months			XXIX. Spitsbergen, or East-Greenland.	
30	90		6	Months			XXX. Unknown.	

The SOLAR SYSTEM.*

TO explain the disposition of the several parts of the universe, and demonstrate the nature of the heavenly motions with respect to each other, and to the earth, it is necessary to understand the *System of the World*.

Several *Systems* have, at various times, been formed chiefly from conjecture; but the astonishing improvements in astronomy, made in later ages, have exploded erroneous suppositions; and experience, assisted by experiment, have, at length, fixed, on a permanent basis, the only true System, called the *Solar System*.

This admirable System was invented by Copernicus, a Prussian, and afterwards fully demonstrated and explained by the incomparable Sir Isaac Newton, who clearly elucidated the harmony of the universe;

“ Where order in variety we see;
“ And where, tho’ all things differ, all agree.”

This System consists of the Sun in the center, and the Planets and Comets moving about it.

The Planets are vast bodies, which, to us, appear like stars; not that they have any light in themselves, but shine merely by reflecting the light of the sun.

“ Each Planet, shining in his proper sphere,
“ Does, with just speed, his radiant voyage steer:
“ Each sees his lamp with different lustre crown’d,
“ Each knows his course with different periods bound;
“ And, in his passage through the liquid space,
“ Nor hastens, nor retards, his neighbours’ race.
“ Now shine these Planets with substantial rays?
“ Does innate lustre gild their measur’d days?
“ No; but they do, as is by system shewn,
“ Dart furtive beams, and glory, not their own;
“ All servants to that source of light, the Sun.”

The Planets are either *Primary*, or *Secondary*.
The Primary Planets are six in number, viz.

Mercury,
Venus,

Earth,
Mars,

Jupiter,
Saturn.

These are called Primary Planets, because they move round the Sun; and the other Planets are called Secondary, because they move round the Primary Planets.

The Secondary Planets are ten in number, and go under the general name of *Moons*: of these *one* moves round the *Earth*, *four* round *Jupiter*, and *five* round *Saturn*.

With respect to *Comets*, it is universally agreed, that they are immense bodies, revolving about the sun in elliptical orbits. Their periodical times are equally constant, certain, and regular, as those of the Planets; but the bodies themselves are abundantly more dense, as they pass through greater extremes of heat and cold, without any sensible diminution.

All Comets are Spheres, with large atmospheres surrounding them. These, in their nearest access to the sun, by the intense heat emitted therefrom, are so much rarified, as to be abundantly lighter than the sun’s atmosphere, and extended into long lucid tails, towards those parts opposite the sun. As Comets recede from the sun, their tails diminish, and their atmospheres increase gradually, until they approach the greatest distance from the sun, and then their tails are contracted into circumambient atmospheres. With regard to motion, Comets and Planets have this difference: all Planets move from east to west in the plane of the ecliptic, and in orbits nearly circular; but Comets, in their very elliptical orbits, traverse the compass in all directions, (the plane of the ecliptic excepted), and that in a manner so wonderful, as not to interfere in the orbits of each other. Superstition long held them as ominous, and the vulgar supposed they were certain forerunners of some tremendous event.

“ Thus terribly in air the Comets roll,
“ And shoot malignant gleams from pole to pole:
“ ’Tween worlds and worlds they move, and, from their air,
“ Shake the blue plague, the pestilence, and war.”

S U N.

THE Sun, situated in the center of the universe, is the fountain of light, the source of the seasons, the cause of the vicissitudes of day and night, the parent of vegetation, and the friend of man. It is a prodigious body of intense heat, and amazing illumination. In fine, when we view the Sun we behold a globe of liquid fire, whose diameter is equal to 100 diameters of the earth; the thickness being 793,000 miles. Its surface is 10,000 times larger than the earth, and its solidity 1,000,000 greater: that is, the surface is the square of the thickness, and the solidity its cube.

* Though the Newtonian System seems to differ, in some respects, from the account of the Creation by Moses, yet both are true, and the variation is only in point of expression. Moses alludes to the rotation of the sun round its own axis, which some have mistaken for a motion round the earth. But it should be recollected, that Moses had an ignorant and stiff-necked people to deal with; in consequence of which he talked as a *Moralist*, not as a *Philosopher*, and wished to make them *good*, not *learned*: he therefore sacrificed mathematical distinctions to the more immediate duties of his function as a religious Law-giver.

" The Sun, that rolls his beamy orbs on high,
 " Pride of the world, and glory of the sky,
 " Illustrious in his course, in bright array,
 " Marches along the heav'ns, and scatters day
 " O'er earth, and o'er the main, and the ethereal way.
 " He in the morn renews his radiant round,
 " And warms the fragrant bosom of the ground;
 " But, ere the noon of day, in fiery gleams;
 " He darts the glory of his blazing beams.
 " Beneath the burnings of his sultry ray,
 " Earth, to her center pierc'd, admits the day."

M E R C U R Y.

THE Planet Mercury is about two-thirds of the earth's magnitude, being 2700 miles in diameter: His distance from the earth is 88,000,000 of miles, and from the sun 32,000,000 of miles. His revolution round the sun is made in a little more than 88 days, with the velocity of 100,000 miles in an hour, which is almost as swift again as the earth travels; for we only go 56,000 miles in the same space. The heat of the sun in this Planet is something more than seven times greater than the heat of the hottest part of the earth in the most sultry summer, which is sufficient to make water boil.

" Mercury, nearest to the central Sun,
 " Does, in his oval orbit, circling run;
 " But seldom is the object of our sight,
 " In solar glory sunk, and more prevailing light."

V E N U S.

THE Planet Venus appears to the eye to be the brightest of all the Planets; and, from its superior lustre, it cannot be mistaken for any of them. The distance of Venus from the sun is 60,000,000 of miles: her revolution round the sun is performed in little more than 224 days, and her motion in an hour is 70,000 miles. From the uncommon brightness of this Planet, the poets have made it the Goddess of Beauty.

" She turn'd, and made appear
 " Her neck refulgent, and dishevell'd hair;
 " Which, flowing on her shoulders, reach'd the ground,
 " And widely spread ambrosial scents around:
 " In length of train descends her sweeping gown;
 " And by her graceful walk the Queen of Love is known."

E A R T H.

THE Earth forms its revolution round the sun in 365 days, 5 hours, and 49 minutes, which revolution makes what we term a year. The Earth is near 80,000 miles in diameter, and distant from the sun about 81,000,000 of miles. The line which this Planet describes in its annual motion is called the Ecliptic, through which it proceeds from west to east, according to the signs of the Zodiac; and it is this motion which causes the different seasons of spring, summer, autumn, and winter, and of the various lengths of days and nights in those seasons.

The Earth, in passing through the ecliptic, always keeps its axis in a situation parallel to itself, and equally inclined to the plane of the ecliptic, which is 23 degrees and a half.

The rotation of the Earth round its own axis, makes it day in those parts which are turned towards the sun, and night in those parts which are turned from the sun.

" While the bright radiant sun in centre glows,
 " The earth, in annual motion, round it goes;
 " At the same time on its own axis reels,
 " And gives us change of seasons as it wheels:
 " Hence stars we see in various order bright;
 " Hence we are blest with change of day and night."

M A R S.

MARS is situated next above the earth in the system of the universe, his course being in the interval between the orbit of Jupiter and that of the Earth, but very distant from both. It is the least of all the Planets, Mercury excepted; has less lustre than any other star, and appears of a dusky red hue. Mars is considerably less than the Earth, its diameter being only 4400 miles. His distance from the sun is 123,000,000 of miles; and he revolves about that central luminary in 687 days, proceeding at the rate of 45,000 miles in an hour. From the sanguinary appearance of this Planet, the ancient poets, in their fables, deemed it the God of War.

" Thus on the banks of Hebrus' freezing flood,
 " The God of Battles, in his angry mood,
 " Clashing his sword against his brazen shield,
 " Lets loose the reins, and scours along the field.
 " Before the wind his fiery couriers fly;
 " Groans the sad earth, resounds the rattling sky.
 " Wrath, Terror, Treason, Tumult, and Despair,
 " Dire faces, and deform'd, surround the car;
 " Friends of the God, and followers of the war."

J U P I T E R.

JUPITER is the largest of all the Planets; but being very remote from the Sun, would scarce enjoy any light, had not the great Author of Nature provided it with four moons, or satellites, which revolve round it in different orbits.

The diameter of Jupiter is upwards of 80,000 miles, and the mass of matter it contains 220 times greater than our Earth. His distance from the sun is 424,000,000 of miles. He revolves round his own axis in 9 hours and 56 minutes; round the sun in 11 years and 10 months; and proceeds at the rate of 24,000 miles an hour.

Exclusive of a famous spot by which the diurnal motion of this Planet was originally determined, it has swathes, or belts, round it, that are moveable, and which are formed by clouds; and like the trade winds to us, lie in tracks parallel to the equator. The poets feigned this Planet to be the head of the heathen Deities, or fabulous Gods, and represented him as having the command of the thunderbolts.

" The pow'r immense, eternal energy,
 " The king of Gods and men, whose awful hand
 " Disperes thunder on the seas and land,
 " Disposing all with absolute command."

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S A T U R N.

SATURN is the most distant Planet in the whole system, being 779,000,000 of miles from the sun. He is 30 years in performing his revolution, and yet moves at the rate of 18,000 miles an hour. He is 61,000 miles in diameter, contains 94 times as much matter as the Earth; but his density is not more than a seventh part of the matter which composes our Planet.

As the light and heat in Saturn are not above a ninetieth part of what we enjoy from the sun, the wise Creator of the Universe hath accommodated Saturn with five moons, which revolve round him in different orbs. But the most singular circumstance relative to this Planet is his ring. This is a vast body of earth, of the thickness of near 800 miles, which surrounds Saturn in form of a circle, at the distance of 21,000 miles from its surface.

S E C O N D A R Y P L A N E T S.

THE Secondary Planets, as we have already observed, are ten in number, viz. five belonging to Saturn, four to Jupiter, and one to our Earth.

With respect to nine of these Moons, or Satellites, namely, those belonging to Saturn and Jupiter, they were unknown till the last century, by reason of their being so diminutive, that they could not be seen from our Earth without the use of long telescopes; hence, till those optical glasses were improved, these Secondary Planets were unobserved.

The Moon, which lights our Earth, contains about the fortieth part of the quantity, or mass of matter, which compose the Planet we reside upon. It is near 2200 miles in diameter, 240,000 miles distant from us; and its surface is about 14,000,000 of square miles.

The Moon is the quickest in its motion of all the Planets, making its revolution in 27 days, seven hours, and three quarters. The light which this Planet affords us at night is not the only benefit we receive from it; for it governs the waters, and occasions the tides, which are of infinite benefit to mankind.

" The Moon, as day-light fades,
 " Lifts her broad circle in the deep'ning shades:
 " Array'd in glory, and enthron'd in light,
 " She breaks the solemn terrors of the night:
 " Sweetly inconstant in her varying flame,
 " She changes still, another, yet the same:
 " Now, in decrease, by slow degrees she shrouds
 " Her fading lustres in a vale of clouds:
 " Now, at increase, her gath'ring beams display
 " A blaze of light, and give a paler day.
 " Ten thousand stars adorn her glitt'ring train,
 " Fall when she falls, and rise with her again;
 " And o'er the deserts of the sky unfold
 " Their burning spangles of sidereal gold.
 " Thro' the wide heav'ns she moves serenely bright,
 " Queen of the gay attendants of the night.
 " Orb above orb in sweet confusion lies,
 " And with a bright-disorder paints the skies."

F I X E D S T A R S.

THE difference, with regard to vision, between the fixed Stars and Planets is, that the latter have a more placid lustre than the former. The fixed Stars have the source of light within themselves, being Suns; but the Planets are composed of opaque matter, and have no light but what they receive from the Sun, or their own Satellites. Hence, though the fixed Stars are at an immense distance, their brightness exceeds that of the Planets, and they are to be distinguished by their twinkling; though Venus and Mercury both twinkle, but not in so great a degree as the fixed Stars.

Beyond the atmosphere of our System the heavens are filled with a fluid much more rarified than our air, and here the fixed Stars are placed at different, but immense, distances from us, and very great distances from each other,

other. "We must have a vast idea of this space, (says an accurate writer,) when we consider that the largest of the fixed Stars, which are probably the nearest to us, are at a distance too great for the expression of all that we can conceive from figures, and for all means of admeasurement. The smallest are, doubtless, more and more remote, to the least, which are of the sixth magnitude. These must be in a part of the heavens more remote from us than the others; and yet beyond these telescopes discover to us more Stars, too distant to be at all perceptible to the naked eye; and in proportion to the power of these instruments, more or less we discover." Hence we may obtain some idea of the infinite wisdom and power of the Great Creator of the Universe;

"Who spread the pure cerulean fields on high,
 "And arch'd the chambers of the vaulted sky;
 "Which he, to suit their glory with their height,
 "Adorn'd with globes that reel, as drunk, with light.
 "His hand directed all the timeful spheres;
 "He turn'd their orbs, and polish'd all the Stars."

Of the CLIMATES.

THERE are 24 Climates on each side the equator; and under the equator the longest day is no more than twelve hours; and in proportion as we advance towards the Polar Circles, the days increase in every Climate half an hour; and at the Polar Circles the longest day is 24 hours. To know what Climate any city, town, or village, is in, observe the longest day, from which deduct 12, and multiply the remainder by two, when the product will be the number of the Climate.

E X A M P L E.

The longest day in London is	—	Hours.
		16
From which deduct		12
		—
		4
Multiply the remainder by	2	—
		8
The product is the Climate of London	—	

Like seasons, climes must differ ev'ry where;
 But man is fitted ev'ry clime to bear.

Of the COMPASSES.

IN the Compass there are four Cardinal Points, viz. East, West, North, and South. Between these four grand points many intermediate points are formed; but these, for the purposes of Geography and Navigation, are confined to 32. As all these respect the position of places, we find by them how empires, kingdoms, states, provinces, districts, &c. are situated with regard to each other; that is, whether they lie northerly, southerly, easterly, or westerly, or agreeable to any of the inferior or intermediate points.

The invention of the Mariner's Compass has been, perhaps, of as great and general utility as any discovery that ever benefited mankind, as, by its means, the wants of one country are accommodated with the superfluities of another; the welfare of individuals, situated at a great distance, becomes interesting to each other; and the inhabitants of the whole universe are linked in one great society.

"While the touch'd Needle trembles to the Pole,
 "The sailor steers wherever waves can roll:
 "Lost to the sight of earth, and light of day,
 "Thro' boundless oceans he explores his way:
 "On the true Compass all his hopes depend,
 "His faithful guide, and his directing friend

The Number of Miles to a Degree of Latitude in other Nations, in Proportion to ours of Sixty-nine.

Statute British miles	—	—	—	69
Italian miles, each 475 Rhinland perch [according to Varenius]	—	—	—	60
Common Turkish miles ditto	—	—	—	60
Spanish miles	—	—	—	17
Marine leagues of France (ours the same)	—	—	—	20
German leagues	—	—	—	15
Low Dutch travelling hours	—	—	—	20
Great leagues of Poland and Denmark	—	—	—	15
Swedish miles	—	—	—	12
Hungarian miles	—	—	—	10
Versts of Moscovy	—	—	—	80
Persian, Arabian, and Egyptain parsanga	—	—	—	20
Chinese leis	—	—	—	250

The French measures is to ours as 15 to 16. Therefore 4950 Paris feet are equal to 5280 British, being our statute mile.

Of M A P S.

IN all Maps the north is at top, the south at bottom, the east on the right, and the west on the left; or, if it be otherwise, it is always expressed either by words on each side, or by a Mariner's Compass, wherein the mark of a fleur-de-lis always denotes the north.

Maps are laid down and proportioned to a certain scale, which is always taken from the degrees of Latitude.

The degrees of Latitude are always marked on the east and west side of the Map.

The degrees of Longitude are always marked on the north and south side of the Map.

A degree of Latitude is always of the same breadth: wherefore the distance of two places seated directly north and south, is immediately known by knowing the different Latitudes. But a degree of Longitude is of different extent.

The Latitude and Longitude of a place being known, you may find it immediately in the Map, by drawing a line, or thread, cross the Map both ways; and where the two lines cut one another, the place stands.

The Earth being a Globe, a Map of the whole Earth must necessarily consist of two parts, both sides of the Globe not being visible at once. Accordingly, in a universal Map, the right hand circle shews the Old World, or Europe, Asia, and Africa; and the left hand circle shews the New World, or America.

Upon the general Map are marked the Circles correspondent to those in the Sphere, namely, the Equinoctial Line, the two Tropics, and the two Polar Circles, all which cross the Map from east to west; and the first Meridians surrounding the two Hemispheres from north to south, the Parallels lying from north to south at ten degrees distance; and the Meridians at the same distance from west to east, are also marked upon general Maps.

Particular Maps, being parts of this, retain the Meridians and Parallels belonging to that particular part, which are made smaller or larger, as the paper on which it is drawn will admit; and the distance of places mentioned in it are always exactly proportioned to the breadth of the Parallels. So that let a Map be ever so small, the distance of places is exactly shewn, if measured according to the degrees of Latitude in that particular Map.

In both general and particular Maps, the thick shadowing denotes the Sea-coast. Rivers are marked by large shadowed serpentine lines; Roads by double lines; divisions of Countries by dotted lines; larger for Provinces, and smaller for Subdivisions; and divisions of Nations are often shewn by chain lines. Forests are represented by trees; Mountains by rising shadows; Sands by dotted Beds; Marshes by shadowed beds; Lakes by shadowed coasts.

The names of Provinces are written in larger capitals; and smaller Divisions in smaller capitals; great Cities in round Roman characters; smaller Towns in *Italic*.

The exact situation of a Town is shewn by a little round \circ ; but larger places have the addition of a church for a Market-Town, if the size of the Map will admit. A city is noted by a church with houses about it, as much as the scale will allow. Particular qualifications of Cities are distinguished by marks, as a Bishopric has a cross, or sometimes a mitre over it.

An Archbishopric has a double cross over it.

An University has a star, or sometimes a *Caduceus*.

An Abbey is shewn by a crook, or pastoral staff,

A Fortress by angles like bastions.

A Castle by a little flag.

A Gentleman's Seat by a house only.

Other marks are affected by particular engravers, which they explain in the margin.

Of the E A R T H abstractedly considered.

THE first thing that presents itself to our view is that huge massy substance the Globe of the Earth, consisting of many solid materials, as well as great quantities of salt and fresh water; for which reason the philosophers commonly call it the Terraqueous Globe. And though the solid matter may, perhaps, be more than the fluid, yet the water takes up much the greater part of the surface of the Globe, as is plain to any one who looks upon a Map of the Earth: for, beside the rivers and lakes, pools and fountains, which water the Earth in various places, the ocean, and its particular seas, are much more extended than the dry land; which, doubtless, was ordered by the Maker of all Things, for the good of mankind; there being such great occasion for water to moisten the Earth, supply us with fish, and facilitate commerce and navigation.

But referring to another place what we shall say about the waters, if we consider the Earth properly so called, we shall find it to be a heap of various bodies; for therein are discovered sand, clay, mould of various colours, several sorts of stones, many salts, sulphur, bitumen, minerals, and metals, without number. Nor is it necessary to dig to the center of the earth, whither human industry can never penetrate, for the discovery of these things; they are sometimes met with, in great abundance, not many feet deep. But in the mines of Hungary and Peru, which are said to be deeper than ordinary, great store of such things appear.

The ancient philosophers (and schoolmen, who followed their opinion, and maintained that the Earth is one of those four Elements whereof all things consist) observing such a medley of things to lie under the surface of the Earth, said this was not the pure Element they meant, but that it was somewhere about the center; but since no man can ever come at those parts near the center of the Earth, this conjecture of theirs is useless.

If Des Cartes's hypothesis were but well grounded, that the Planets were once of the like nature with the fixed Stars, consisting of a fiery substance, and came afterwards to be crufted over with thick and solid matter, there might be still, at this day, a great fire in the center of the Earth, as some people imagine. But since the grounds on which he supposed the Planets to be derived, may be reckoned among those things which are every way doubtful, and only seem not impossible, though, perhaps, as far from being true as real impossibilities, it is a rashness in his followers to take this imaginary fire at the centre of the Earth for a certain truth.

If those parts which now make up the Earth were once loose, and carried round the same center in a circular motion, we could then gather, from most certain experiments, that the grossest of all the parts fell down to the center of the Earth. Now, since we know nothing heavier than metals, it would not be absurd to suppose, that the inmost bowels of the Earth were filled with a prodigious store of various metals; and this being presumed,

our

our opinion would receive confirmation from magnetic experiments, by which it generally appears, that the Earth is of the nature of a great loadstone. Therefore we might, with great reason, suspect, that at the heart of the Earth, there are iron and loadstone in great abundance, which would be just contrary to their opinion who hold a fiery center. But this our hypothesis is built upon no certain reason, and therefore, for the avoiding of error, it is much the safest way to suspend our assent in this case.

However, this is observable, that the deeper we dig into the ground, the heavier the matter is; and though there be no coming near the center of the Earth, yet such metals are dug out of the deepest mines, as are rarely found on the surface; and if, instead of digging mines a mile and a half deep, which is hardly ever done, we could go some miles downward, perhaps the matter would still be closer and heavier.

But be this as it will, thus much we are sure of, as to the parts about the surface of the Earth, that they are under a continual change and alteration, which may proceed from various causes. Among those causes we will not reckon human labours; but this we see, that the hardest bodies in the world, the very adamant itself not excepted, being exposed to the open air, do wear and waste in time, and undergo various alterations without the hand of man; and, therefore, the whole surface of the Earth, whereto the air perpetually presses, must needs be subject to such alterations.

Beside the perpetual change of seasons, heat and cold, rain and wind, earthquakes and running waters, are always making a wonderful change in that part of the Earth which is next the surface: and if we take in the daily mutations of innumerable animals and plants, which are fed by the fruits and moisture of the Earth, and, after a short time, putrify and return to Earth again, we shall have reason to believe, that this surface on which we tread, especially in countries that have been long inhabited, is, for the most part, composed of the bodies of men and beasts, or rather of a matter which is every day putting on new forms.

And by such perpetual variations of matter, there must needs happen an increase of dry Earth, and a decay of moisture; for it does not appear that the parts of fluid bodies, which have been once blended with solids, and have been so impregnated with salts as to lose their fluidity, do ever retrieve it again. This is evident in plants and animals, which grow bigger so long as they receive spirit and nourishment from liquors, but afterwards turn to corruption. Some conclude from hence, that, in order to prevent too great a decay, or total failure of moisture in the Planets, God created Comets; that so their fumes, diffusing themselves through the vortex of the Sun, might fall into the latter vortices of the Planets, and augment their liquids.

Moreover, there must needs be a vast change made in the Earth by means of the many fires which prey upon it within.

Philosophers sometimes consider the Earth as a huge loadstone, which, when we come to speak of the loadstone, we shall have an opportunity to enlarge upon. Meanwhile we may here observe, that, in this respect, also the Earth is much altered, as appears from the variations of the Magnetic Needle, which sometimes points directly at the Pole, and sometimes declines several degrees east or west. But this cannot happen without an alteration in the pores of that magnetic matter which flows out of the Earth, and which seems to come at one time directly from the Pole, and at another time from those parts which are on the right or left side of the Pole. And whether this variation proceeds from the fires under ground, which may spoil here and there a mine of loadstone, (yet so as that it may afterwards recover its virtue again), or whether it be from some other cause, is what no man certainly knows.

GEOGRAPHICAL PROBLEMS.

PROBLEM I.

The Latitude of any Place being given, to rectify the Globe for that Place.

LET it be required to rectify the Globe for the Latitude of London, 51 deg. 32 min. north; and Madrid 40 deg. 10 min. north, proceed thus:

Turn the Pole, on which the dial-plate is fixed, towards the verge of the Horizon, slipping or moving the Globe backwards or forwards in the notches of the Horizon, till the Horizon cuts the brazen Meridian in 51 deg. 32 min. (viz. a little more than 51 and a half); so is the Globe rectified for the Latitude of London; that is, the North Pole will then be elevated 51 deg. 32 min. above the Horizon; and London being brought to the Meridian itself, will then be in Zenith, or right up, and at equal distance from all parts of the Horizon.

Depress the Pole till the Horizon cuts the brazen Meridian at 40 deg. 10 min. and you have then the position of the inhabitants at Madrid; and turning the Globe till Madrid comes to the Meridian, you will find it in the Zenith, or top of the Globe, under 40 deg. 10 min.

Note. If it were required to rectify the Globe for South Latitude, then you must elevate the South Pole to the given Latitude, instead of the North Pole; but this is better explained by the next Problem.

PROBLEM II.

The Latitude and Longitude of any Place given, to find the same.

First, You are to observe whether the Longitude be reckoned from Longitude, or from the first Meridian; for on some Globes the first Meridian begins 23 deg. on others 20 deg. and on Senex's Globes 18 deg. west of London; but if once you know where the first Meridian is on the Globe, it is very easy to know the difference from the Meridian in London.

EXAMPLE.

There are two certain places; one has 18 deg. North Latitude, and 77 deg. 5 min. West Longitude; the other is 33 deg. 45 min. South Latitude, and 18 deg. East Longitude from London; I demand what Places these are.

Rule. For the first Place, I elevate to the North Pole 18 deg. because it is 18 deg. North Latitude; then I turn the Globe to the right hand, or eastward, (because the place lies westward,) till 77 deg. 5 min. on the Equator, counted from the Meridian of London, (which on Senex's Globe has a cypher thus (0) on the Equator,) passes through or under the Meridian: or, in other words, I turn the Globe till 77 deg. 5 min. westward, be brought under the

Meridian,

Meridian, and here I fix the Globe with a quill thrust in betwixt the Globe and the Horizon; then I look under the Latitude 18 deg. (which is in the Zenith,) on the Meridian a-top of the Globe, and under 18 deg. on the Meridian I find Port Royal, in Jamaica, the place required.

For the second Place I elevate the South Pole (though there is no occasion to elevate the Pole barely to find a place, but it is better, because you have then the real situation of the inhabitants) to the given Latitude 34 deg. 45 min. and then turn the Globe till 18 deg. East Longitude of London come under the Meridian; and just under this I find the Cape of Good Hope, the place required.

P R O B L E M III.

The Latitude of any Place given, to tell all those Places that have the same Latitude.

D E F I N I T I O N.

All those places that have the same Latitude, have the days and nights of the same length, at the same time of the year.

Rule. Bring the given place or places to the Meridian (suppose London 51 deg. 32 min. and Madrid 40 deg. 10 min. North); then turn the Globe; and all those places that pass under 50 deg. 32 min. have the same Latitude as London, viz. Prague, in Germany, &c. and all that pass under 40 deg. 10 min. have the same Latitude as Madrid, which you will find to be Pekin nearly for one, and many other places.

P R O B L E M IV.

To tell the Difference of the Latitude of Places.

Here are two Variations or Rules.

First. If the Latitudes be both North or both South, then subtract the less from the greater Latitude, and the remainder is the difference, or answer. Thus between London and Madrid is 12 deg. 32 min. the first being 50 deg. 32 min. and the other 40 deg. And between Candy and Stockholm is 52 deg. 30 min. for Stockholm is about 59 deg. 30 min. North, and Candy 7 deg. 30 min. North.

Secondly. If one lies on the North, and the other on the South side of the Equator, (that is to say, if one be North, and the other South Latitude,) then add them together, and their sum is the difference of the Latitude required.

Thus Copenhagen is 55 deg. 40 min. North, and the Island of Madagascar is 19 deg. 30 min. South: these added together make 75 deg. 10 min. the difference of Latitude required.

P R O B L E M V.

The Longitude of any Place given from any Meridian, to tell those Places, having the same Latitude.

This is done after the same manner as the other; only here the answer will be on the Equator, as the others were on the Meridian.

I would know what places have the same Longitude as London, and the same Longitude as Moscow.

The *Rule* is, bring London to the Meridian, then all those places on the Globe (from the North Pole to the South part of the Horizon) that lie under the edge of the Meridian, have the same Longitude as London: thus Fort Nassau, and Fort Mina, in Guinea, have the same, or very nearly the same Longitude as London.

And Moscow, in Muscovia, has very nearly the same Longitude as Aleppo, in Syria: also Scanderoon, Antioch, and Tripoli, in Syria, have the same Longitude, viz. 37 deg. 30 min. from London.

P R O B L E M VI.

To tell the Difference of Longitude of Places.

Rule. Here are two Variations.

First. If the places lie both East or both West of the first Meridian, or where you reckon the Longitude from, viz. if they both be East, or both be West Longitude, then subtract one from the other, and you have the difference.

Thus I find Jerusalem has 36 deg. 15 min. East Longitude from London, and Pekin 110 deg. 52 min. East Longitude; therefore subtract 36 deg. 15 min. from 110 deg. 52 min. and there remains 74 deg. 37 min. difference of Longitude East or West; that is, Pekin is 74 deg. 37 min. East Longitude of Jerusalem, or Jerusalem is 74 deg. 37 min. West Longitude of Pekin.

Secondly. If one place be East, and the other West Longitude, of the first Meridian (suppose London, or any other Meridian) then add their Longitudes together, and the sum is the difference of Longitude required.

E X A M P L E I.

I would know the difference of the Longitude between Jerusalem, 36 deg. 15 min. East of London, and Port Royal, in Jamaica, 77 deg. 5 min. West.

Here, as one is East, and the other West, I add 36 deg. 15 min. and 77 deg. 5 min. together, and their sum makes 113 deg. 20 min. difference of Longitude; that is, Jerusalem is 113 deg. 20 min. East of Port Royal, or Port Royal is 113 deg. 20 min. West of Jerusalem.

E X A M P L E II.

Pekin, in China, is 110 deg. 15 min. East Longitude, and Port Royal 77 deg. 5 min. West; I add these sums together, and find it 187 deg. 20 min. difference of Longitude; but because it is more than 180 deg. I subtract 187 deg. 20 min. from 360 deg. and there remains 172 deg. 40 min. the difference required.

PROBLEM.

P R O B L E M VII.

The Day of the Month given, to find the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic.

Rule. The day of the month being given, look on the inner Calendar on the new Globes, and you have the sign, and the degree of that sign that the Sun is in for that day, according to the New Style.

If it be upon old Globes, look on the outer Calendar, you have the sign, and degree of the sign.

N. B. You may further observe, that the Calendar used throughout Europe is the Calendar for New Style, viz. New Style is always known from the other, because it has the Saints Days, and several other things, wrote on the Horizon.

E X A M P L E.

I would know the Sun's place in the Ecliptic on May 21, New Style; March 21, June 21, September 22, and December 21.

I look for these days of the months in order as they stand in the new Calendar, (viz. for New Style before described,) and right against the day of the month in the innermost Circle, on the Horizon, I find the Sun's place among the signs, as follows:

Thus, right against May 21 I find 1 deg. of Gemini: and also on March 21 I find he enters Aries: on June 21 he enters Cancer: on September 22 he enters Libra: and on December 21 he enters Capricorn.

P R O B L E M VIII.

The Sun's Place given, to find the Day of the Month.

This is only the reverse of the former Problem: for having the Sun's place given, seek it in the Circles among the signs; then against that degree in the Calendar, New Style, you have the day of the month required.

E X A M P L E.

I would know what time of the year the Sun is in 1 deg. of Gemini: as also when he enters Aries, Cancer, Libra, and Capricorn? Proceed according to the rule, and you will find the days to be May the 21st, June the 21st, September the 22d, and December the 21st, as in the last.

P R O B L E M IX.

The Latitude and Day of the Month given, to find the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic, and rectify the Globes for use.

Rule. Find the Sun's place on the Horizon by Problem the Seventh; and having noted what degree he is in, look upon the Ecliptic on the Globe, and find the same sign and degree as you did on the Horizon; then bring this degree of the Ecliptic very carefully to the graduate edge of the brazen Meridian, and holding the Globe steady, turn the Index exactly to the upper twelve, (which represents twelve at noon); and thus is the Globe rectified for that day; and the degree of the Ecliptic that lies under the Equator represents the Sun's place at noon, or twelve o'clock that day.

* * The Astronomer's day is reckoned from, or begins at, twelve o'clock; and if you fix the Quadrant of Altitude to the Latitude in the Zenith, the Globe will be completely rectified.

P R O B L E M X.

To tell the Declination of the Sun on any Day of the Year.

Rule. Having found the Sun's place in the Ecliptic for the given day, bring it to the brazen Meridian, and observe what degree of the Meridian it lies under, and whether it be on the North or on the South side of the Equator, for that is the declination required, which is called North or South declination accordingly. Thus, on April 21st the Sun has 11 deg. 30 min. North declination; and on May the 21st he has 20 deg. 30 min. declination; but on October the 27th he has 12 deg. 30 min. South declination.

P R O B L E M XI.

The Latitude and Day of the Month given, to tell the Sun's Meridian Altitude, viz. his Height at Noon.

Rule. Bring the Sun's place to the Meridian, and observe what degree of the Meridian the Sun's place is under; for those degrees on the Meridian that are intercepted, or lie between the South Verge of the Horizon, and the degree which is over the Sun's place on the Meridian, (counted on the Meridian,) is the Sun's Meridian Altitude required.

Thus, I find his Meridian Altitude in London, May the 21st, to be 59 deg. but on November the 5th he has but 23 deg. 30 min. Altitude.

P R O B L E M XII.

The Latitude and Day of the Month given, to tell the Sun's Altitude at any Time.

Example. On May the 21st, at nine in the morning, and at five in the afternoon, at London, I would know the Sun's Altitude, or height?

Rule. Rectify the Globe for the Latitude, and bring the Sun's place (1 deg. Gemini) to the Meridian, and the Index to the upper twelve on the Dial-plate; then screw the Quadrant of altitude on the Zenith, (viz. the left edge of the Nut must be fixed on the Meridian, at 51 deg. 30 min.) then turn the Globe till the Index points to the hour, viz. nine in the morning: this done, fix the Globe by thrusting a quill between it and the Horizon: lastly, turn the Quadrant about till the graduated or figured edge touch the Sun's place, (viz. 1 deg. Gemini,) and the degrees on the Quadrant, counted from the Horizon upwards on the Quadrant, is his height at that time, viz. 43 deg. 30 min. Then turn the Globe till the Index points at five in the afternoon; and also turn the Quadrant on the West-side (without unscrewing it) till it touches the Sun's place, and you have about 24 deg. on the Quadrant, his Altitude at that time.

N. B. At North Cape, (viz. North Latitude, 72 deg. at nine in the morning,) May the 21st, he will be but about 32 deg. high.

P R O B L E M XIII.

The Latitude given, to tell the Rising and Setting of the Sun, and Length of the Day and Night, at any Time of the Year in any Place.

Rule. Rectify the Globe, (viz. elevate it for the Latitude; bring the Sun's place to the Meridian, and Index to the upper twelve); then turn it till the Sun's place comes even with, or lies right against, the inner Verge, on the East-side of the Horizon, then the Index will shew you the time of the Sun's rising; turn it to the West-side, or Verge of the Horizon, and the Index will shew you the setting. Or thus; having got the hour the Sun rises, count how many it wants of twelve, for so many hours will it set after. Thus, if the Index points to four in the morning at rising, it will of course be at eight at night, &c.

Proceed thus, and you will find the Sun, on May the 26th, at London, to rise about four in the morning, and sets at eight at night. Now double what he wants of twelve at rising, viz. eight hours, and it gives the length of that day in London, viz. sixteen hours.

P R O B L E M XIV.

To tell the Sun's right Ascension.

Bring the Sun's place to the brazen Meridian, and note what degree of the Equator is cut by the Meridian, for that is his right Ascension required.

I would know the Sun's right Ascension on March the 21st, June the 21st, September the 22d, and December the 21st?

I find the Sun's place for these different days, and bring it to the Meridian; I find the Meridian cuts the Equator in (0), in (90), in (180), and in (270 deg.) his right Ascension required.

Note. When the Sun enters Aries, March the 21st, he has no right Ascension, because it is counted from, or begins at, Aries; therefore, on March the 20th, he must have his greatest right Ascension, viz. 359 deg.

P R O B L E M XV.

To find the Sun's oblique Ascension and Descension at any Time, and in any Latitude.

Rule. Rectify the Globe for the Latitude, and bring the Sun's place down to the eastern Verge of the Horizon; then observe what degree the Horizon cuts the Equator in, for that is the oblique Ascension required.

Thus, on March the 21st, June the 21st, September the 22d, and December the 21st, viz. when the Sun enters Aries, Cancer, Libra, and Capricorn, you will find his oblique Ascension at London to be (0), (56), (180), and 304.

And on the same days his oblique Descension will be (0), (123), (180), and (237 and a half.)

P R O B L E M XVI.

The Latitude and Day of the Month given, to tell the Sun's ascensional Difference, viz. how much he rises, or sets, before and after Six; and consequently to tell the Length of the Days, suppose there were no Index to the Globe.

Rule. By the last Problem find the Sun's right and oblique ascension; then subtract the oblique from the right ascension, or the contrary, and the remainder is the ascensional difference required; which, divided by fifteen, the degrees of the Equator that pass through the Meridian of one hour, (or seven and a half for half an hour,) gives the answer in time, that the Sun rises and sets before and after six.

Thus, on May the 26th I find the Sun 6 deg. of Gemini, and his right ascension is 64 deg. and on the same day, his oblique ascension is 34 deg. now 34 deg. from 64 deg. there remains 30 deg. his ascensional difference; which, divided by 15, gives two hours, the time that he rises before, or sets after six.

P R O B L E M XVII.

The Latitude and Day of the Month given, to tell the Sun's Amplitude, viz. his Distance from the East and West Points of the Compass he rises and sets upon.

Rule. The Globe being rectified, bring the Sun's place to the eastern Verge of the Horizon, (which shews its rising,) then the degree upon the innermost Circle of the Horizon, counted from the true East Point to the place where the Sun's place lies against on the Horizon, shews you the Sun's Amplitude.

Proceed according to the rule, you will find the Sun's Amplitude at London, (May the 21st,) at rising, to be about 34 deg. from the East to the North, and at setting, 34 deg. from the West to the North; and the Point he rises upon is North-East by East, and he sets North-West by West: but on November the 5th he has about 25 deg. and a half Amplitude from the East to the South, and at setting 25 deg. and a half from the West to the South. The Point he rises upon is East-South-East, and the Point he sets upon is West-South-West.

P R O B L E M XVIII.

The Latitude and Day given, to tell the Sun's Azimuth, viz. his Distance from the East and West, or from the North and South Points, at any Time.

Rule. Rectify the Globe in general, then turn the Globe till the Index points to the given hour: this being done, turn the Quadrant till it touches the Sun's place for the given day; and then the Quadrant will cut the Horizon in the Azimuth required, from the East or West Points, or from the North or South Points; for you may reckon from either, only then name it properly, and accordingly.

Thus, on August the 17th, at nine in the morning, the Sun will have about 30 deg. Azimuth, from the East to the South, or, which is the same, 60 deg. from South to the East: for 60 deg. and 30 deg. make 90 deg. the whole quarter from East to South.

P R O B L E M XIX.

The Latitude, Day, and Hour given, to tell the Sun's Almicanter.

D E F I N I T I O N.

Almicanter are Circles of Altitude, that run parallel to the Horizon, whose Poles are the Zenith and Nadir; so that you may imagine as many Circles of Altitude, viz. Almicanter, as you please.

Rule. The Almicanter is found the same as the Altitude of the Sun at any time, therefore I refer you back to Problem 13.

P R O B L E M XX.

The Latitude and Length of the Day given, to tell what other Day of the Year will be of the same Length.

Rule. Having found the Sun's place for the given day, bring it to the Meridian, and observe well its declination; then turn the Globe till some other degree of the Ecliptic comes under the same degree of declination under the Meridian; this being done, see what day of the month answers to the Sun's place then under the Meridian, for that is the day required; which you may easily prove. Thus, you will find July the 13th, and August the 20th, of the same length as May the 26th, and April the 17th.

P R O B L E M XXI.

The Latitude and Day given, to tell the Beginning, Ending, and (consequently) the Length, or Continuance, of Twilight.

D E F I N I T I O N.

Twilight is that faint light which begins immediately after the Sun sets in the evening, till he is 18 deg. below the Horizon; and it begins in the morning, when the Sun comes within 18 deg. of the Horizon on the East-side, and ends when he rises. Therefore it is plain, that Twilight is not only longer when days increase in length, but it is also much stronger, as will be seen by the work of the Problem.

O B S E R V A T I O N.

Note. You were told that Twilight begins and ends when the Sun is 18 deg. below the Horizon; and as the Quadrant of Altitude reaches no lower than the Horizon, therefore the rule is this:

Rectify the Globe, and bring the opposite degree of the Sun's place to the Quadrant of Altitude, so that it touches just 18 deg. on the Quadrant, (then it is plain that the Sun's real place will be depressed 18 deg. below the Horizon); then look at the Index, for that will point (if among the morning hours) to the beginning, or (if among the evening hours) ending of Twilight.

Proceed then according to the rule, and you will find that on March the 21st, and September the 22d, Twilight begins about four in the morning, and ends about eight at night.

The Sun on these days, you know, rises and sets at six. Add, therefore, the length of morning and evening Twilight to twelve hours, (the length of the day then,) and it gives sixteen hours; this, subtracted from twenty-four hours, leaves eight hours, the length of the real or dark night.

So also on April the 24th, Twilight begins about half past two, ends about half past nine, which is in all seven hours. But on December the 20th it begins at six, and ends at six, which is in all but three hours and forty minutes.

P R O B L E M XXII.

The Hour given where you are, to tell what Hour it is in any other Part of the World.

Rule. Bring the given place to the Meridian, and set the Index at the given hour; then turn the Globe till the other place, or places, come under the Meridian, and the Index will point to the real time in the place required.

Example. When it is two o'clock in the afternoon at London, I would know the time at Jerusalem, and at Port-Royal, in Jamaica?

Proceed according to the rule, and you will find that when it is two in the afternoon in London, it is twenty-five minutes past four at Jerusalem; and but fifty-two minutes past eight in the morning at Port-Royal.

Or thus, by Problem the Sixth, Jerusalem is 36 deg. 15 min. East Longitude of London; I divide, therefore, 36 deg. 15 min. by fifteen, and the Quotient is two hours, and the remainder is six, which is six times, or twenty-four minutes, and the odd fifteen minutes, or miles, in one minute; so that the difference is two hours, twenty-five minutes; and as Jerusalem is East of London, it has its hour before us; therefore it is twenty-five minutes after four in the afternoon. And thus for other places.

P R O B L E M XXIII.

The Day of the Month given, to tell those Inhabitants that will have the Sun in their Zenith (or over their Head) on that Day.

This cannot happen to any other inhabitants but those in the Torrid Zones; that is, to all such as have not above 23 deg. and a half of Latitude, either North or South.

Rule. Bring the Sun's place to the Meridian, and observe exactly his declination for that day; then turn the Globe any way, and observe what places pass under that degree of declination on the Meridian; for all such will have the Sun right over their heads, some time or other on that day.

I would know what inhabitants, or places, will have the Sun in their Zenith on May the 21st?

Proceed as directed by the rule, you will find St. Jago, in Hispaniola; St. Jago, in Cuba; Campeachy, and many other places, will, pass under that degree of declination, viz. (20 deg. North,) and will have the Sun in their Zenith that day.

Also, on April the 16th, the inhabitants of Porto-Bello, the Oronoko-Islands, Bay of Siam, Isle of Ceylon, and the Philippine-Islands, will have the Sun in, or near, their Zenith, on that day.

P R O B L E M XXIV.

The Day and Hour given in any Place, to tell those Inhabitants, or that Place, to which the Sun is then vertical, viz. in the Zenith.

Rule. Bring the given place to the brazen Meridian, and turn the Index to the given hour; this done, turn the Globe till the Index points to the upper 12, or noon; then look under the degree of declination on the Globe of that day, for that is the very spot, or place, to which the Sun is then vertical.

Example.

Example. On May the 13th, at eight minutes past five in the afternoon at London, I would know what place has the Sun in their Zenith? Answer, Port-Royal, in Jamaica.

Thus also you will find, when it is thirty-three minutes past six in the morning at London, on April the 12th, and August the 28th, the inhabitants of Candy, in the Island of Ceylon, will have the Sun then nearly in their Zenith.

Of the MAGNET, or LOADSTONE.

WE shall not enquire when the Loadstone was first known, our present business being only to give the Natural History of it. First, then, we will observe its various properties which experience has made known; and, in the next place, propose the opinions of philosophers concerning its internal nature and disposition.

The Loadstone is found in iron-mines, and is much of a colour and weight with iron. However, it is not to be melted and hammered out like iron, but flies to pieces under the hammer, and turns to a calx in the fire; which shews that its parts exceed those of iron for hardness, rigidity, and an intricate combination one with another. This is worth observing, because it will be of use in the following discourse:

Its known properties are these: First, when it moves freely, and without any obstacle, it points North and South, so as that part of it which stands to one Pole never turns to the other. The way to give it a free motion, is to swim it in the water upon a piece of wood.

Philosophers have observed, that the Loadstone does not always point full North and South; but sometimes inclines to the East or West, without any rule.

Two Loadstones, placed at a certain distance from each other, do mutually approach or recede, according to their various positions. Their parts which stand North, being opposed, go off to a distance from each other; but the South-end of the one draws to the North-end of the other; and so *vice versa*. These parts of the Loadstones we call their Poles; and, for a reason which will appear hereafter, we shall call that the South-Pole which turns to the North, and that the North-Pole which points to the South.

Two Loadstones will hold up one another in the air by turns, if the North-Pole of the one be put to the South-Pole of the other; and *vice versa*. Sometimes a lighter Loadstone will hold up a heavier, when the heavier will not hold up a lighter.

It is observable that all Loadstones are not equally brisk and nimble in turning to the Poles of the World; nor is their attracting virtue all alike.

Though a Loadstone generally has two Poles, pointing North and South, as we said before, yet there are some irregular ones, which seem to have more Poles.

As one Loadstone holds up another, so it does iron of greater or less weight than itself.

If iron-dust be strewed upon a Loadstone, the particles will dispose themselves directly between the Poles, and then by degrees incline to an orbicular figure, so as to lie parallel with the axis of the Loadstone, unless it be one of the irregular sorts before-mentioned.

The Loadstone imparts its virtues to iron so effectually, that iron, touched with a Loadstone, appears to have all the properties aforesaid, though not in an equal degree. The great use of this communication is experienced in the Mariner's Needle, by the help whereof they readily find the North and South, and all other parts of the world.

It is observable that, on this side the Equator, the North-Point of the Needle is more depressed than that which stands to the South; on the further side the North-Point is elevated, and the South depressed; but under the Line it keeps no situation, nor is of any use.

As the Loadstone communicates its virtue to iron, so when it is set in iron, it attracts a greater weight of it than it does by itself.

Loadstones are spoiled if they lie long near one another, with the North or South Pole of one opposed to the same Pole of the other; or if they are thoroughly heated in the fire, which likewise spoils the magnetic virtue in iron: and this virtue is much impaired in iron by its rust; to which the Loadstone is not so liable.

Lastly, iron placed at length North and South, and continuing so for a long time without alteration, has often acquired a magnetic virtue: as the old crosses upon churches are found to do.

Of the S E A.

AFTER fountains and rivers, it is now proper to view the common receptacle of them all, the Sea, which is that vast quantity of salt-water extending from North to South, and from West to East, surrounding the dry land on every side, into which all streams discharge themselves, and out of which mighty gulphs and bays are formed, the greatest of which is the Mediterranean. The whole is, in one word, called the Ocean, but variously distinguished and named, from the several countries by whose coasts it runs. In it there are these three properties chiefly considered by Naturalists: First, its inseparable saltness; Secondly, its constant equality of bulk, notwithstanding the incessant flowing of all rivers into it; and Thirdly, the tide, or flowing and ebbing of its waters twice every day: all which properties we shall consider.

The saltness of the sea-water seems to proceed from the same cause as that of several fountains, by the boiling of which water salt is produced: for since the bottom of the Sea is of such vast extent, it is reasonable to think that there are large mines of salt in many places of it, which being diluted, spread throughout the Sea. And there is something even in the river-water which helps to increase this saltness; for the rivers carry down with them an incredible multitude of saline particles, which they wash off their banks as they run along. These particles are not, indeed, so considerable as to salt their particular streams; but when they all meet together, and settle in one bottom, they may well be allowed to change the taste of the water sufficiently.

Hence we may likewise be satisfied why the saltness of the Sea is neither augmented or diminished, at least in a sensible manner. It is not augmented by the influx of salt particles. 1. Because a world of saline particles are continually thrown off upon the shore, where they putrify, and come no more into the water. 2. Because people make salt upon the Sea-coast for common uses. 3. Water can be impregnated with salt only to a certain degree, at which it stands, and rejects the overplus. 4. In the last place, the saltness of the Sea is not diminished, because as much is imported or diluted from its own mines, as is got out of it.

To help us in finding out the reason why the water of the sea is not augmented, let us see whether there be not a way for its daily diminution, as well as increase. It is sufficiently plain that there is a vast quantity of vapours in the air, from the abundance of snow and rain, which are formed of condensed vapours: but how to estimate the quantity

quantity of the evaporations of water by some certain rule, is the material point; which the learned Dr. Halley has happily attempted in the following manner :

He took a pan of water about four inches deep, and about eight inches diameter, salted to the same degree as is the common Sea-water; by the solution of about a fortieth part of salt, in which he placed a thermometer, and, by means of a pan of coals, he brought the water to the same degree of heat, which is observed to be that of our air in the hottest summer, the thermometer nicely shewing it. This done, he affixed the pan of water, with the thermometer in it, to one end of the beam of a pair of scales, and exactly counterpoised it with weights in the other scale; and, by the application or removal of the pan of coals, he found it very easy to maintain the water in the same degree of heat precisely. During this, he found the weight of the water sensibly to decrease; and, at the end of two hours, he observed that there wanted near half an ounce Troy, or 233 grains of water, which, in that time, had gone off in vapour, though he could hardly perceive it smoke, and the water not sensibly warm. This quantity, in so short a time, seemed very considerable, being little less than six ounces in 24 hours, from so small a surface as a circle of eight inches diameter.

To reduce this experiment to an exact calculus, and determine the thickness of the skin of water that had so evaporated, he assumes the experiment alledged by Dr. Bernard to have been made in the Oxford Society, that the cube foot of English water weighs exactly 76 pounds Troy; this divided by 1728, the number of inches in a cube foot, will give 253 one-eighth grains, or half ounce, 13 one-third grains for the weight of a cube inch of water; wherefore the weight of 233 grains is about 35 parts of 38 of a cube inch of water, and shows that the thickness of the water evaporated was the 53d part of an inch; but we will suppose it only the 50th part, for the facility of calculation.

If, therefore, water, as warm as the air in summer, exhales the thickness of a 50th part of an inch in two hours from its whole surface, in 12 hours it will exhale the one-tenth of an inch; which quantity will be found abundantly sufficient to serve for all the rains, springs, and dews; and account for the Caspian Sea being always at a stand, neither wasting nor overflowing; as likewise for the current said to set always in at the Straits of Gibraltar, though those Mediterranean Seas receive so many and such considerable rivers.

To estimate the quantity of water arising in vapours out of the Sea, he thinks he ought to consider it only for the time the sun is up, for that the dews all night return as much, if not more, of the vapours than are exhaled; and in summer the days being longer than 12 hours, this excess is balanced by the weaker action of the sun, especially when rising before the water be warmed: so that if we allow one-tenth of an inch of the surface of the Sea to be raised every day in vapour, it may not be an improbable conjecture.

Upon this supposition, every 10 square inches of the surface of the water yields in vapour daily a cube inch of water; and each square foot half a wine pint; every space of four feet square a gallon; a mile square 6914 tons; and a square degree, suppose of 69 English miles, will evaporate 33 millions of tons.

And if the Mediterranean be estimated at 40 degrees long, and four broad, allowances being made for the inequalities, there will be 160 square degrees of Sea; and, consequently, the whole Mediterranean must lose in vapour, in a summer's day, at least 5280 millions of tons. And this quantity of vapour, though very great, is as little as can be concluded from the experiment produced. And yet there remains another cause, which cannot be reduced to rule, namely, the Winds, whereby the surface of the water is skimmed off sometimes faster than by the heat of the sun.

OF WINDS.

IT is well known that Wind is nothing else but the stream of the air, together with such vapours as the air carries along with it. But there are a great many properties of Winds, the reasons and grounds of which are not easily discovered. However, we will first consider the Winds in general, as they are constant and variable. Secondly, we will particularly examine their various appearances; and Lastly, say something of their origin.

The Winds may be divided into constant and variable: the former are always, at certain times of the year, and in certain parts of the world; but the latter vary so much, that they cannot be reduced to any rule. Now since it is easier to find out the cause of one regular effect, than of many irregular, let us, in the first place, treat of constant Winds. And here we must take notice, that the Winds are constant and periodical only in the open seas. Now the universal Ocean may most properly be divided into three parts. 1. The Atlantic and Ethiopic Oceans. 2. The Indian Ocean. 3. The great South-Sea, or Pacific Ocean; and though these seas do all communicate by the south, yet as to our present purpose of the periodical Winds, they are sufficiently separated by the interposition of great tracks of land; the first lying between Africa and America; the second between Africa and India; and the last between China, Japan, and the coast of America.

In the Atlantic and Ethiopic Seas, between the Tropics, there is a general easterly Wind all the year, excepting that it is subject to vary and deflect some few points towards the north or south, according to the position of the place. The observations which have been made of these deflections are as follow: that near the coast of Africa, as soon as you pass the Canary Isles, you are sure to meet a fresh gale of north-east Wind, about the latitude of 28 degrees north, which seldom comes to the eastward of east-north-east, or passes the north-north-east. This wind accompanies those bound to the southward, to the latitude of ten north, and about 100 leagues from the Guinea Coast, where, till the fourth degree of north latitude, they fall into calms and tornadoes.

Those who are bound to the Caribbee Isles find, as they approach the American side, that the aforesaid north-east Wind becomes still more and more easterly, so as sometimes to be east, sometimes east by south, but yet most commonly to the northward of the east, a point or two, not more. It is likewise observed, that the strength of these Winds gradually decreases as you sail westward.

The limits of the constant and variable Winds in this ocean, are farther extended on the American side than the African: for whereas you meet not with this certain Wind till you have passed the latitude of 28 degrees on this side, on the American side it commonly holds to 30, 31, or 32, degrees of latitude; and this is verified likewise to the southward of the Equator; for, near the Cape of Good Hope, the limits of the Trade Winds are three or four degrees nearer the line, than on the coast of Brasil.

From the latitude of four degrees north, to the aforesaid limits on the south of the Equator, the Winds are perpetually between the south and east, and most commonly between the south-east and east; observing always this rule, that, on the African side, they are more southerly, on the Brasilian more easterly, so as to become, almost due east, the little deflection they have being still the south. In this part of the ocean the Wind has been nicely observed, for a full year together, to keep constantly about the south-east, the most usual point south-east by east. When it is easterly it generally blows hard, with gloomy, dark, and sometimes rainy weather.

The season of the year has some small effect on these constant winds; for when the sun is to the north of the Equator, the south-east Winds, especially between Brasil and the Coast of Guinea, vary a point or two to the

south, and the north-east become more easterly; and, on the contrary, when the sun is towards the Tropic of Capricorn, the south-easterly Winds become more easterly, and the north-easterly Winds, on this side the Line, were more northward.

As there is no rule without some exception, so there is in this ocean a track of sea, wherein the southerly and south-west Winds are perpetual, and that is all along the coast of Guinea, for above 500 leagues together, from Sierra Leona to the Isle of St. Thomas; for the south-east Trade Wind having passed the Line, and approaching the coast of Guinea within 80 or 100 leagues, inclines towards the shore, and becomes south-south-east, and by degrees, as you come nearer, it veres about to south, south-south-west, and is with the land south-west, and sometimes west-south-west, as is seen in the Map of the Trade Winds.

To the northward of the Line, between four and ten degrees of latitude, and between the Meridians of Cape Verd, and of the easternmost islands that bear that name, there is a track of sea wherein it were improper to say there is any Trade Wind, or yet any variable; for it seems condemned to perpetual calms, attended with terrible thunder and lightning, and rains so frequent, that our navigators from thence call this part of the sea *The Rains*: the little Winds that are, consist only of some sudden uncertain gusts, of very little continuance, and less extent.

All who use the West-India trade, even those bound to Virginia, count it their best course to get as soon as they can to the southward, that they may be sure of a fair fresh gale to run before it to the westward; and for the same reason, those homeward bound from America, endeavour to gain the latitude of 30 degrees as soon as possible, where they first find the Winds to be variable; though the most ordinary Winds in the north part of the Atlantic Ocean come from between the south and west.

What is here said is to be understood of the Sea Winds at some distance from land; for upon and near shore, the land and sea breezes are almost every where sensible; and the great variety which happens in their periods, force, and direction, from the situation of the mountains, vallies, and woods, and from the various texture of the soil, more or less capable of retaining and reflecting heat, and of exhaling or condensing vapours, is such, that it were endless to endeavour to account for them.

In the Indian Ocean the Winds are partly general, as in the Ethiopic Ocean partly periodical; that is, half the year they blow, and the other half near upon the opposite points; and these points, and times of shifting, are different in different parts of this Ocean. The limits of each track of sea, subject to the same change, or monsoon, (as the natives call it,) are certainly very hard to determine; but the diligence I have used (says Dr. Halley) to be rightly informed, and the care I have taken therein, has, in a great measure, surmounted that difficulty. I am persuaded that the following particulars may be relied on:

That between the latitudes of 10 and 30 degrees south, between Madagascar and New-Holland, the general Trade Wind about the south-east by east is found to blow all the year long, to all intents and purposes, after the same manner as in the same latitudes in the Ethiopic Ocean.

The aforesaid south-east Winds extend within two degrees of the Equator, during the months of June, July, and to November; at which time, between the south latitude of three and 10 degrees, being near the Meridian of the north-end of Madagascar, and between two and 12 south latitude, being near Sumatra and Java, the contrary winds from the north-west, or between the north and west, set in and blow for half the year; that is, from the beginning of December till May; and this monsoon is observed as far as the Molucca Isles.

To the northward of three degrees south latitude, over the whole Arabian or Indian Sea, and Gulph of Bengal, from Sumatra to the coast of Africa, there is another monsoon blowing from October to April upon the north-east points; but in the other half year, from April to October, upon the opposite points of south-west and west-south-west, and that with rather more force than the other, accompanied with dark rainy weather; whereas the north-east blows clear. And the Winds are not so constant, either in strength or point, in the Gulph of Bengal, as they are in the Indian Sea, where a certain and steady gale scarce ever fails. It is also remarkable, that the south-west Winds in these seas are generally more southerly on the African side, and more westerly on the Indian.

To the eastward of Sumatra and Malacca, to the northward of the Line, and along the coast of Cambaya and China, the monsoons blow north and south; that is to say, the north-east Winds are much northerly, and the south-west much southerly. This constitution reaches to the eastward of the Philippine Isles, and as far north as Japan; the northern monsoon setting in here in October or November, and the southern in May, blowing all the summer months. The points of the compass, from whence the Wind comes in these parts of the world, are not so fixed as in those lately described; for the southerly will often pass a point or two to the eastward of the south, and the northerly as much to the westward of the north, which seems occasioned by the great quantity of land which is interspersed in these seas.

In the same Meridians, but southward of the Equator, being that track lying between Sumatra and Java to the west, and New-Guinea to the east, the same northerly monsoons are observed; but with this difference, that the inclination of the northerly is towards the north-west, and of the southerly towards the south-east.

These contrary Winds do not shift all at once, but in some places the time of the change is attended with calms, in others with variable Winds; and it is particularly remarkable, that the end of the westerly monsoon, on the coast of Coromandel, and the two last months of the southerly monsoon in the seas of China, are very subject to be tempestuous: the violence of these storms is such, that they seem to be of the nature of the West-Indian hurricanes, and render the navigation of these parts very unsafe about that time of the year. These tempests are by our seamen usually termed, *The breaking up of the Monsoons*.

By reason of the shifting of these Winds, all those that sail in these seas are obliged to observe the seasons proper for their voyages; and by so doing, they sail not of a fair Wind, and speedy passage; but if they chance to outstay their time till the contrary monsoon sets in, as it frequently happens, they are forced to give over hopes of accomplishing their intended voyage, and put into some other harbour, and there to remain till the Winds come favourable.

The third Ocean, called the Great Pacific, whose extent is equal to that of the other two, (it being from the west coast of America to the Philippine Islands, not less than 150 degrees of longitude,) is that which is least known to all nations. The chief navigation is by the Spaniards, who go yearly from New-Spain to the Manillas by one beaten track; so that we cannot be particular here, as in the other two. What the Spanish authors say of the Winds they find in their courses, and what is confirmed by the old accounts of Drake and Cavendish, and since by Schouten, is, that there is a great conformity between the Winds of this sea, and those of the Atlantic and Ethiopic; that to the northward of the Equator the predominant Wind is between the east and north-east; and to the southward thereof there is a constant steady gale between the east and south-east, and that on both sides the line with so much constancy, that they scarce ever need to attend the sails; and so much strength, that it is rare to fail of crossing this vast Ocean in 10 weeks time, which is about 150 British miles a day.

This

This is to be understood of the Pacific Sea at a great distance from land; for about the shores are various Winds; and when the south-east or south-west blows, this sea is rough and dangerous; for the least Wind raises it very high; but when the Wind ceases, though it blowed very strong just before, there is an immediate calm; as if there had been no Wind for a long time; whereas, on the contrary, the Atlantic Sea rolls for several days after the Wind is laid, and is generally smooth on the coast, and tempestuous out on the main.

The limits also of these general Winds are much the same as in the Atlantic Sea; that is, about the thirtieth degree of latitude on both sides; for the Spaniards, home-bound from Manilla, always take the advantage of the south-monsoon, blowing there in the summer months, and run up to the north of that latitude as high as Japan, before they meet with variable Winds to shape their course eastward. Also Schouten, and others, who have gone by the Magellan Straits, have found the limits of the south-east Winds much about the same latitude to the southward; and a farther analogy between the Winds of this Ocean and the Ethiopic, appears in that upon the coast of Peru; they are always much southerly, as they are near the shores of Angola.

As for the variable Winds, they are felt most by land, and in such parts of the sea as are without the limits of the constant Winds to the north and south; that is, in the colder parts of the Ocean, and all over its outmost bays, the principal of which are the Mediterranean and Baltic: some are common to all countries; others are more peculiar to some particular parts. Of this latter sort the most famous are the hurricanes, which chiefly infest the Caribbees, but are not anniverfary, nor equally frequent. Their fury is so great, that they throw down all before them, tear up trees, overturn houses, toss ships prodigiously, and blow about things of vast weight. They are not even, but blow in gusts, which suddenly come and go; neither do they extend very wide, but are sometimes confined to a narrow compass, and at other times take a large scope. As for their duration, it is but for a few days, and sometimes only a few hours. They are more common in America than any where, though Europe and Asia are not altogether without them.

It may be observed of all Winds, whether constant or variable, that some are drying, others are moist, some gather clouds, other disperse them; some are warm, others cold. But their influence is not one and the same in all places; for such Winds as are cold and dry in one country, are warm and wet in another.

These are the principal observations concerning Winds; for to examine every thing belonging to this subject would be the work of a large volume, as no reasons can be given for several things, before the truth of them is better ascertained. Wherefore we shall, at present, confine ourselves to account for the causes of constant Winds.

Wind is most properly defined to be the stream, or current of the air; and where such a current is perpetual, and fixed in its course, it is necessary that it proceeds from a permanent, unintermitting cause. Wherefore some have been inclined to propose the diurnal rotation of the earth, upon the axis, by which, as the Globe turns east, the loose and fluid particles of the air, being so exceeding light, are left behind; so that in respect of the earth's surface, they move westward, and become a constant easterly Wind. This opinion seems confirmed, for that these Winds are found only near the Equinoctial, in those parallels of latitude where the diurnal motion is swiftest. And we should readily assent to it, if the constant calms in the Atlantic Sea near the Equator, the westerly Winds near the coast of Guinea, and the periodical westerly monsoons under the Equator in the Indian Seas, did not declare the insufficiency of that hypothesis. Besides, the air being kept to the earth by the principle of gravity, would require the same degree of velocity that the surface of the earth moves with, as well in respect of the diurnal rotation, as of the annual about the sun, which is 30 times swifter.

It remains therefore to find some other cause, capable of producing a like constant effect, agreeable to the known properties of the elements of air and water, and the laws of the motion of fluid bodies. Such a one is, we conceive, the action of the sun-beams upon the air and water, as he passes every day over the oceans, considered together with the nature of the soil, and situation of the adjoining continents; therefore First, according to the laws of statics, the air which is less rarified, or expanded by heat, and consequently more ponderous, must have a motion towards those parts thereof, which are more rarified and less ponderous, to bring it to an equilibrium: and Secondly, the presence of the sun continually shifting to the westward, that part toward which the air tends, by reason of the rarefaction made by his great meridian heat, is with him carried westward, and consequently the tendency of the whole body of the lower air is that way. Thus a general easterly wind is formed, which being impressed upon all the air of a vast Ocean, the parts impel one another, and so keep moving till the next return of the sun, whereby so much of the motion as was lost is again restored; and thus the westerly wind is made perpetual.

From the same principle it follows that the easterly Wind should, on the north side of the Equator, be to the northward of the east, and, in south latitudes, to the southward thereof; for near the Line the air is much more rarified than at a greater distance from it, because of the sun being twice in a year vertical, and at no time distant above 23 degrees and a half; at which distance the heat, being as the sine of the angle of incidence, is but little short of that of the perpendicular ray. Whereas under the Tropics, though the sun continues long vertical, yet he is as long 47 degrees off; which is a kind of winter, wherein the air so cools, as that the summer heat cannot warm it to the same degree with that under the Equator: wherefore the air to the northward and southward being less rarified than that in the middle, it follows, that from both sides it ought to tend toward the Equator: this motion, compounded with the former easterly Wind, answers all the phenomena of the general Trade Winds; which, if the whole were sea, would undoubtedly blow all round the world, as they are found to do in the Atlantic and Ethiopic Oceans.

But seeing that so great continents do interpose and break the continuity of the oceans, regard must be had to the nature of the soil, and the position of the high mountains, which may be supposed the two principal causes of the several variations of the Winds from the former general rule: for if a country lying near the sun proves to be flat, sandy, low land, such as the deserts of Libya are usually reported to be, the heat occasioned by the reflexion of the sun-beams, and the retention thereof in the sand, is incredible to those who have not felt it; whereby the air being exceedingly rarified, it is necessary that the cooler and more dense air should run thitherwards to restore the equilibrium: this is most likely to be the cause why, near the coast of Guinea, the Wind always sets in upon the land, blowing westerly instead of easterly.

There is sufficient reason to believe that the inland parts of Africa are prodigious hot, since the northern borders thereof were so intemperate, as to give the ancients cause to conclude, that all beyond the Tropics was uninhabitable by excess of heat. From the same cause it happens, that there are such constant calms in that part of the Ocean, called the Rains: for this track being placed in the middle, between the westerly Winds blowing on the coast of Guinea, and the easterly Trade Winds blowing to the west thereof, the tendency of the air here is indifferent to either, and so stands in equilibrio between both; and the weight of the incumbent atmosphere being diminished by the continual contrary Winds blowing from hence, is the reason that the air here holds not the copious vapour it receives, but lets it fall into frequent rains.

But

But as the cool and dense air, by reason of its greater gravity, presses upon the hot and rarified, it is demonstrative, that this latter must ascend in a continued stream as fast as it rarifies; and that, being ascended, it must disperse itself to preserve the equilibrium; that is, the upper air must move by a contrary current from those parts where the greatest heat is: so, by a kind of circulation, the north-east Trade Wind below will be attended with a south-westerly above, and the south-easterly with a north-west Wind above. That this is more than a bare conjecture, the almost instantaneous change of the Wind to the opposite point, which is frequently found in passing the limits of the Trade Winds, seems to assure us; but that which above all confirms this hypothesis, is the phenomenon of the monsoons, by this means most easily solved, and without it hardly explicable.

If the causes of tempests and hurricanes be demanded, they are hardly to be accounted for in all particulars. However, it may in the first place be noted, that the ratio of all liquids is much the same, and therefore an extraordinary motion may be excited in the air, by the same way as it is in the water. Now if water falls from a high place, or if there be a confluence of several streams together, this gives it a violent motion, and causes many whirlings and eddies in it: this is apparent in torrents falling down from rocks, and confluences of rivers. If, therefore, something analogous to this may happen in the air, there must needs be furious tempests of Wind raised in it. And such a thing may happen, if an extraordinary quantity of vapours be driven by the Wind upon a certain place, which they cannot easily get over by reason of mountains or contrary Winds, that oppose them. For example, suppose a Wind from some point between north and east carries a vast collection of vapours out of Africa to the Caribbees, this Wind lights upon the continent of America; now it is possible that not only the mountains and woods of Panama may resist the current of this Wind, and crowd the vapours together, but a contrary Wind, from a point between south and west, may blow at the same time on the western shore of America, which shall force the vapours back again. When such a rencounter happens, there must be a wild uproar in the air, about the Caribbee Isles, and in all that track between South and North-America, and the vapours in this circular motion must be furious on all sides, just as it is in the water. For we see at the confluence of two rivers, if their currents be rapid at the place where they fall in, they cause violent eddies, which whirl about things that are cast into them, swallowing them for a time; and then throwing them up again.

This shews us the reason why heavy bodies are often tossed in the air by the whirling of hurricanes, and then dashed to the ground again. For the air being in a circular motion, is with great fury tossed backwards and forwards between the ground and the clouds. And as the waters of the rolling sea do not run to the shores in an even stream, but in such waves as dash by fits and turns, so the course of a violent Wind is broken into distinct blasts.

To come now to the common phenomena of Winds, the dry ones are such as carry few vapours along with them, and therefore draw off the moist particles from bodies over which they pass. Thus in Holland the north and east Winds, with the intermediate points, are drying, because the cold northern sea yields but few vapours, in comparison of those which come from warmer parts of the Ocean; and from thence towards the east are vast tracks of land, where the heat at Midsummer is but very small. But the other Winds, especially the westerly, are moist, because they issue from the warm and vaporous parts. The Western Ocean seldom fails to send us rainy Winds: however, this property varies according to the various situation of countries.

Such Winds gather clouds as blow from the quarters where the vapours arise, which, in conjunction with the vapours of our own region, fill the air. On the other side those Winds make fair weather, which bring little vapour along with them, and bear away that which hangs over us.

Winds are warm or cold, as the countries are from whence they blow; and, therefore, when a brisk Wind blows from a cold quarter, it allays the summer heat, which is very tiresome in still weather. Thus a quick blast of a pair of bellows will put out a flame, which a gentle blowing increases; for the quick blast drives all the flame to one side, where it is stifled by the force of the incumbent air, except it meet with more fuel on that side; but a gentle Wind augments the motion of the flame every way, and makes it seize on more parts of the fuel.

Now, because all the heat or cold of Wind proceeds from the heat or cold of the country whence it blows, therefore the same Winds are hot and cold every where. Beyond the line they are just the reverse of what they are with us; for their cold Winds are from the south, as ours are from the north; and as our south Winds are warm, for no other reason but because they bring us an air heated by the sun, for the very same reason the north Winds are warm to our Antipodes.

From what has been said it is sufficiently manifest, that the sun is the principal cause of Wind, and motion the cause of Vapours. But if we except those constant and periodical Winds which blow in some seas, the limits of the rest cannot be determined, nor can we say when they will begin, or when they will end. For instance, we cannot give a reason why an east Wind shall generally blow one summer, and a west Wind another. Possibly it might be discovered, if, for several years together, a nice observation was made of the Winds, and their shiftings in several countries; for that which seems inconstant and irregular to us, might, perhaps, be found to follow certain courses; at least we should know how far a raised wind would continue its blast: but, till such experiments are made, we must be satisfied with what knowledge we have.

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